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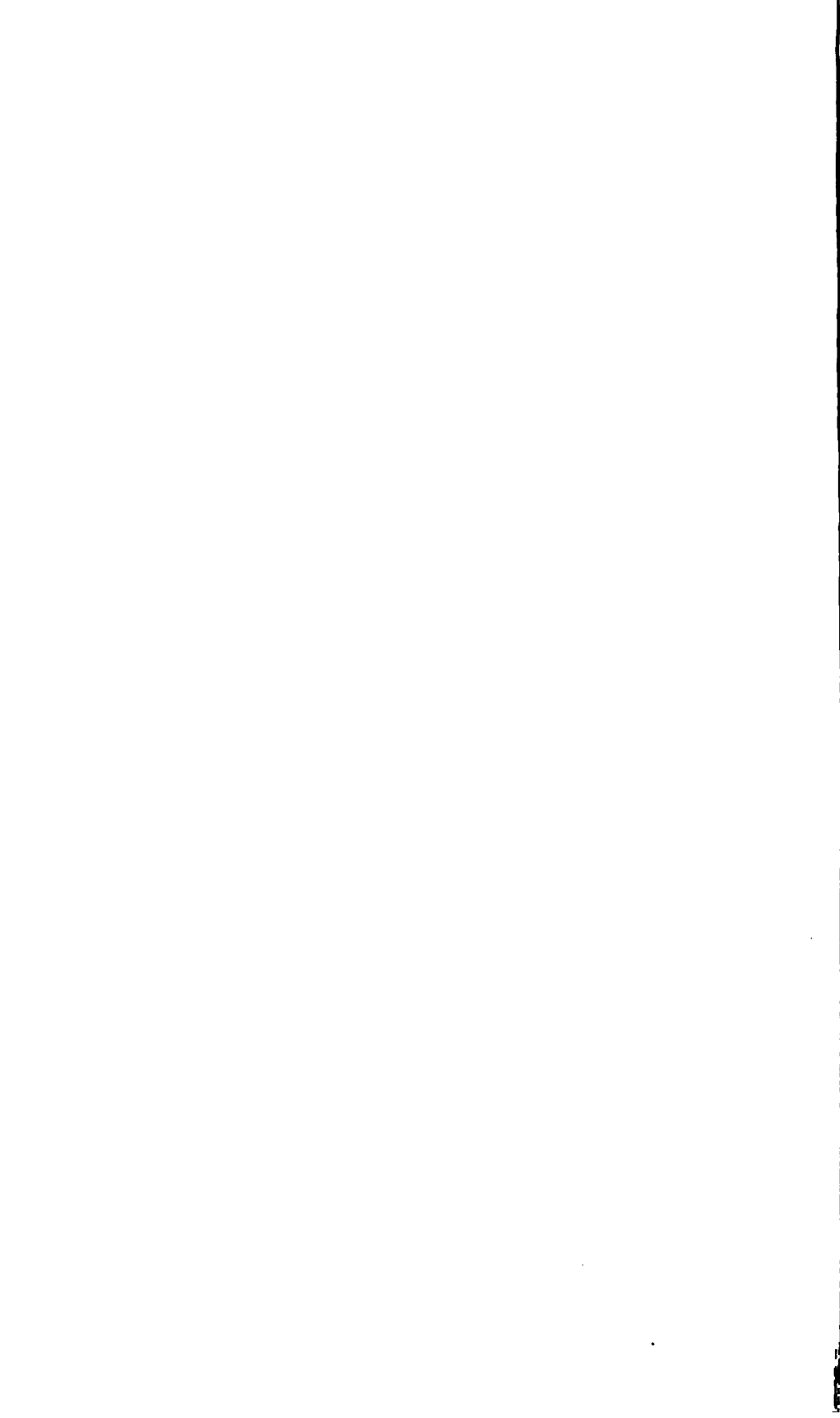
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THE

JOURNAL OF PROCEEDINGS AND ADDRESSES

OF THE

NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION,

SESSION OF THE YEAR 1884,

AT

MADISON, WIS.

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THE NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION.

FIRST DAY'S PROCEEDINGS.

TUESDAY, JULY 15.

The twenty-third annual meeting of the National Educational Association began its sessions in Madison, Wis., on the evening of Tuesday, July 15, 1884.

On account of the large numbers present the general sessions were divided into sections A, B, and C, held respectively in the Assembly Chamber, Senate Chamber, and Congregational Church.

SECTION A.

President T. W. Bicknell, of Boston, Mass., presided, and after music, vocal and instrumental, introduced the speaker of the evening, Hon. J. L. M. Curry, of Virginia, who delivered an address upon "Citizenship and Education."

SECTION B.

In this section Hon. Birdsey G. Northrop, of Connecticut, presided, and the main address was delivered by Rev. A. D. Mayo, of Massachusetts.

SECTION C.

President J. L. Pickard, of Iowa, presided and introduced Prof. J. M. Coyner, Ph. D., of Utah, who spoke on "The Utah Problem as Related to National Education."

SECOND DAY.

WEDNESDAY A. M.—OPEN AIR MEETING.

The Association met at 9 A. M. in Capitol Park, President Bicknell presiding. Prayer was offered by Rev. C. H. Richards, D. D., of Madison, Wis. Music by Leuder's Band. Governor Jeremiah M. Rusk, of Wisconsin, was introduced by President Bicknell and spoke as follows:

It is a great pleasure to me to bid you a cordial welcome to the State of Wisconsin, coming as you do from every State in the Union, for that laudable purpose of consulting as to the best methods of teaching and training the rising generation of this glorious country.

Any one who has looked over your program and your school exhibits will be justly satisfied, and gratified, that great good will come from the meeting of the educational interests of the Nation. I had no idea of the extent of the school exhibit until after it had arrived. From it we see at a glance that the industrial interests go hand in hand with the education of the mind; that physical training is necessary to develop mental culture, and the one without the other is deprived of more than half its force and usefulness. We are glad to have so many that are engaged in this great national work in our midst. From you we expect to receive an incentive for renewed vigor and hard work, and harder work, and an inspiration of pure thought. We receive you as the teachers of morality and justice,—the cardinal principles upon which our government is founded, and its permanency depends; and for being such we grant you a most cordial welcome, and assure you of the kindness and liberality of all our citizens.

The Mayor's Address.

Mayor B. J. Stevens, of Madison, after referring to the remarkable growth of Wisconsin, and especially of Madison, and welcoming the members to its hospitalities, said:

We recognize the magnitude of the work before you and somewhat its difficulties. It is the old unsolved problem with which are associated the great names of the past. Strike from the history of civilization that which pertains to education, and every chapter and page is mutilated. The history of one tells the life-story of both.

In the philosophy of education,—the discovery of methods,—your labors may add to the gathered knowledge and wisdom of the past a little, but only a little,—such accretion as one generation, aided by those preceding it, may reasonably hope to make. The so-called new methods are found to be, largely, old methods. The method of teaching by objects,—words and things to go hand in hand,—is as old as the time of Plato. The importance of the study of individual dispositions and of tenderness in discipline was urged in Quintilian's time. The contemporaneous training of body and mind, was practised as far back as the twelfth century. That children should be taught while playing, was orthodox school doctrine at the time of the Reformation. "Teach a thing first, then reason about it," says John Sturm, of Strasburg. The relation of the study of classics to education, a question now before the public, was discussed *pro* and *con*. in the sixteenth century. The ideal education of to-day is not greatly different from that of the Greeks and Romans. Nor is unmeasured zeal in this work, new in the world. Will many here undertake to stand in comparison with the good Pestalozzi?

But in the matter of testing and developing methods there is before you an unexplored opportunity,—one new to the world. For the first time in history, it is possible

to apply to educational methods, on a scale sufficiently large to justify a hope for practical results, the tests of experimentation and comparison.

May it not be hoped that from comparisons so widely made, and the interchange of views so widely held, some standard or test, some nomenclature or formula will arise, by which methods may be tested and results measured and tabulated; to the end, that those methods found to be valueless, may be abandoned for all time?

Looking in this direction, is the fact, that professorships for the development of the science of pedagogics have lately been established in the universities of Germany, England, and the United States,—and not in all England until 1873, only eleven years ago; while the fifth in order, and probably latest in time in the United States, was established at the last meeting of the Regents of the University of the State of Wisconsin.

You are welcome at our city and our homes. If your numbers be such as to make our gift of comforts limited, you must take more of the *welcome*, which is unlimited.

Gen. Lucius Fairchild, of the committee on Arrangements, was then presented, and added a most hearty welcome.

Hon. W. H. Chandler, Assistant Superintendent of Public Instruction in Wisconsin, also spoke in an eloquent vein of the great educational institutions of the State, and the enormous interest developed in the Association by the teachers of Wisconsin. The great number of life-memberships in the National Association, bought by representative Wisconsin educators, was alluded to as an evidence of the interest.

Address of President Bascom.

Dr. John Bascom, president of the University of Wisconsin closed the list of welcoming speakers. The doctor said in substance :

It has been assigned me, as my pleasant duty in behalf of the highest institutions of learning in Wisconsin, to welcome those here present representing similar institutions in other States.

From an educational point of view there are three particulars to which I may fitly invite the attention of those who come to us from older States. These points of difference in our educational methods are to be ascribed as much to the circumstances of our history as to any preconceived purpose on our part.

Our higher educational institutions are united more closely and directly to intermediate and primary education than in most States. The students of the University come to it almost wholly from the high schools of the State; and the high schools of the States are organized and aided in direct connection with the University. The State University in Wisconsin gathers in and concentrates the educational influences and work of the State in a manner that is not usual in the East. This arises from the fact that the State and the University, aided both by the general government and by the local government, have grown up rapidly together, and so the lead in education has naturally and inevitably fallen to the University.

A second difference alike in origin is found in the close union of classical and scientific instruction in the same institutions. When the claims for more extended instruction in science arose, the colleges of the East were found guided and controlled by those chiefly interested in classical work. In many cases, therefore, the new demand was met by new institutions, by schools of science and technology. No such priority of possession existed in the new West, and hence its State Universities embrace even-handed both branches of education. If there is in this method some loss, there is also, as we think, decisive gains in it. Education in both directions is more catholic than it is likely to be when pursued in distinct institutions.

A third divergence is offered by co-education. The higher institutions of the West are co-educational. This fact is also due to historical causes. This claim also found the East established in its method, while it entered into the West as new ground.

Hence, from the beginning there have been with us no customs to be corrected, and fewer prejudices to be overcome. Ideas and events have had unobstructed sway, and co-education everywhere prevails. This is a very great fact, and is likely to carry with it social differences of grave moment. The East cannot readily appreciate how natural, how much a matter of course, co-education has become with us. A gentleman walking with a lad, inquired of him, "Who is that man ahead of us?" The answer was, "Why, he is my father. Don't you know my father? I know him just as easy." We understand co-education just as easily as the boy knew his father, and we are only reminded that it is something out of the common line by eager inquiries from the East concerning it.

Honored guests, we shall gladly give you what we can, and gladly receive what you have to bestow. Once more we assure you of our hearty welcome.

Other Addresses.

President T. W. Bicknell, in a brief and eloquent speech, alluded to the fact that the Association had been assured of a warm welcome at Madison, and in Wisconsin nearly a year ago, but that the welcome which had been experienced upon arrival here had passed all expectations, and was as boundless as the grand prairies which characterize the State and the West. He closed by introducing Dr. D. B. Hagar, of Salem, Mass., as the author of the Constitution of the National Educational Association. Dr. Hagar happily outlined the organization of the Association, and read the original call for a meeting, to open August 27, 1857, at Philadelphia. The babe then born in Philadelphia looked sickly indeed, he said, but in the twenty-seven years past it has developed so rapidly that it was compelled to come to the open West for room in which to expand.

The meeting was further addressed by Prof. Z. Richards, of Washington; Dr. J. L. Pickard, of Iowa; Dr. E. E. White, of Ohio; and General Eaton, of Washington; all of whom spoke of the unbounded success of the meeting. The Association then listened to the President's Address.

Gov. Rusk extended an invitation to the Association to attend a reception at his residence on Thursday evening.

On motion of Eli T. Tappan, LL. D., of Ohio, the invitation was accepted, and the president and secretary were directed to give formal notification of this acceptance.

Adjourned to meet immediately at the Congregational Church for a business session. At this session, President Bicknell in the chair, on motion of Hon. B. G. Northrop, LL. D., the president was authorized to appoint the usual committees.

Dr. Eli T. Tappan presented the amendments to the constitution, of which notice was given last year. The several amendments were adopted.

Dr. Tappan presented the following resolution:

Resolved. That a committee be appointed by the Board of Directors to consider the organization of a permanent and international council of education; that the committee be authorized to consult with other committees appointed for this purpose; and in the name of the National Educational Association of the United States, to call for a first meeting of such international council at New Orleans the coming winter.

Dr. G. Stanley Hall moved the omission of the word "permanent" from the resolution. After further discussion the resolution was referred to the Board of Directors.

Adjourned.

EVENING SESSIONS.

SECTION A.

Assembly Chamber, Hon. M. A. Newell, of Maryland, in the chair. Addresses were delivered by Maj. R. Bingham, North Carolina, on "Educational Status and Needs of the South;" by Albert Salisbury, New York, "The Supplementing of the War;" and by Prof. Wm. H. Croghan, of Georgia, on "Negro Education in the South,—its Helps and Hindrances."

SECTION B.

Rev. A. D. Mayo, presiding. Addresses by Hon. Gustavus J. Orr, of Georgia, and Prof. B. T. Washington, of Alabama, on "The Educational Outlook in the South."

SECTION C.

President Bicknell occupied the chair, and addresses respecting the New Orleans Exposition were delivered by Maj. E. A. Burke, Director-General, and by Gen. John Eaton, LL. D., United States Commissioner of Education.

SESSIONS OF THURSDAY, JULY 17.

Assembly Chamber, 9 A. M., President Bicknell in the chair. The president announced the following committees:

ON NOMINATION OF OFFICERS.

Massachusetts—Wm. T. Harris, ch'n.
Maine—V. A. Johnston.
New Hampshire—C. C. Rounds.
Vermont—J. M. Hitt.
Rhode Island—D. W. Hoyt.
Connecticut—S. T. Dutton.
New York—S. A. Ellis.
New Jersey—W. H. Barringer.
Pennsylvania—S. H. Jones.
Maryland—M. A. Newell.
Virginia—S. C. Armstrong.
West Virginia—J. G. Giddings.
North Carolina—Robert Bingham.
South Carolina—V. C. Dibble.

Georgia—Major Slayton.
Alabama—B. T. Washington.
Mississippi—E. D. Miller.
Louisiana—Warren Easton.
Arkansas—O. V. Hays.
Tennessee—Thomas H. Payne.
Wisconsin—Geo. S. Albee.
Kentucky—R. D. Allyn.
Ohio—J. B. Peaslee.
Illinois—A. G. Lane.
Indiana—H. B. Hill.
Minnesota—Irwin Shepard.
Iowa—Henry Sabin.
Michigan—H. R. Gass.
Florida—J. S. Cowdon.

Kansas—A. R. Taylor
 Missouri—J. M. Greenwood.
 Nebraska—Supt. James.
 California—H. B. Norton.
 Colorado—J. C. Shattuck.
 Arizona—George C. Hall.
 Oregon—Ella C. Sabin.
 Texas—Prof. Sellers.
 Utah—J. M. Coyner.
 Dakota—W. H. H. Beadle.
 Montana—A. S. Nichols.
 District of Columbia—Z. Richards.
 Wyoming—N. E. Stark.
 Nevada—Chas. S. Young.

ON NECROLOGY.

W. E. Sheldon, Massachusetts.
 A. J. Rickoff, New York.
 Geo. F. Magoon, Iowa.
 W. F. Phelps, Minnesota.
 G. J. Orr, Georgia.

ON RESOLUTIONS.

E. E. White, Ohio, chairman.
 W. H. Bell, Indiana.
 Clara Conway, Tennessee.
 D. H. Kiehle, Minnesota.
 George Howland, Illinois.
 Sarah E. Doyle, Rhode Island.
 J. A. Page, Massachusetts.

A communication respecting instruction in the hygienic effect of alcoholic liquors was received and referred to a special committee to be appointed by the chair.

The following communications were read, received, and placed on file:

From the principal chief and Board of Education of the Cherokee Nation, appointing Rev. W. A. Duncan and Prof. J. H. Coval its representatives to this Association

From the State Board of Education of the State of Oregon, appointing Miss Ella C. Sabin a representative at this Association.

From the State Teachers' Association of California, appointing Miss Emma Marwedel a delegate to this meeting.

• From the State Teachers' Association of Kentucky, appointing Prof. William N. Bartholomew its representative at this meeting.

From the State Teachers' Association of West Virginia, appointing twelve persons delegates to this meeting.

Telegrams of greeting were read from the teachers of New York, from the Teachers' Association of Pennsylvania, and from Senator H. W. Blair of New Hampshire; while letters were submitted from Hon. John M. Gregory, of the Civil Service Commission, Washington; J. A. Haworth, Superintendent of the Indian School at Olathe, Kan.; from the Russian Minister of Public Instruction, St. Petersburg; Dr. H. B. Sprague, president of the American Institute of Instruction, of Cottage City, Mass.; from the Minister of Public Instruction, at Cairo, Egypt; from D. W. Bushyhead, principal chief of the Cherokee Nation, Indian Territory; from the Ottawan Legation, New York; from Gen. Benj. F. Butler, Boston; from the Superintendent of Education, Dutch Guiana; from Hon. Jos. Desha Pickett, of Kentucky; from Hon. David Allis, Minister of Education, Nova Scotia; from Rev. J. Van Bockelyn, Buffalo, and from others expressing sympathy with the work of the Association and regretting their inability to be present.

Superintendent R. W. Stevenson, of Ohio, stated that the American Association for the Advancement of Science, had appointed a committee

to consider the following question: "Which of the physical sciences should find a place in the courses of study for secondary schools and what methods of instruction should be made use of?" and he moved the adoption of the following resolution:

Resolved, That a committee of five persons be appointed to confer with a similar committee from the *American Association for the Advancement of Science* in the consideration of the above question.

This resolution was referred to the Board of Directors.

Hon. J. L. Pickard, Chairman of the Auditing Committee of the Board of Directors presented the following:

Your committee on auditing to whom has been referred sundry resolutions reports as follows: We find that to reach the ends sought sundry amendments must be made to the constitution. Such amendments we present herewith:

1. Amend Article III. by adding Section 4 as follows: Any association may become a perpetual member by the payment of thirty dollars, and shall be entitled to one representation each year for every thirty dollars so paid.

2. Add to Section 1 of Article IV. as follows: Whenever a life-member desires to become a life-director he shall be credited with the amount he has paid for his life-membership.

3. Amend Section 9 of Article IV. by inserting after the word *life-directorship* in the third line, the following: life-memberships, perpetual memberships, transfer of association funds, or donations, etc.

It will appear from the above that the committee considers favorably all the resolutions referred except the one which contemplates quarterly instalments in payment of life-directorships, which we do not favor.

Since these provisions of the constitution cannot become operative until another year we would recommend that all perpetual memberships created by associations previous to July 1, 1885, may be created upon the payment of twenty dollars, the same as life-memberships.

We also recommend that a sum not exceeding _____ dollars be transferred from the treasury of the Association to the permanent fund in the hands of trustees.

We also endorse most heartily the substance of resolutions looking to an active canvass for life-directorships and life-memberships with the understanding that all moneys thus obtained will be placed in a permanent fund.

Respectfully submitted.

J. L. PICKARD, *Chairman*.

D. B. HAGAR.

Recommendation received and ordered spread upon the minutes. Notice was given by Dr. John Hancock that he should at the next annual meeting of the Association move the adoption of these amendments.

Dr. C. O. Thompson, of Indiana, introduced the following resolution which was referred to the Committee on Resolutions :

Resolved, That considering the importance of the present movement for instruction in industrial education, an exhibit of results similar to that now made in this building should be made in each State at its capitol during the session of the legislature.

E. E. White, LL. D., of Ohio, presented the following resolution :

Resolved, That the educators of the United States, in National Convention assembled, most heartily commend the recent action of the United States Senate in making a liberal appropriation of money to aid the several States in their efforts to lessen and remove the alarming illiteracy which so seriously threatens free institutions, and they most earnestly hope that this important measure may receive the early and favorable consideration of the House of Representatives.

The resolution was adopted by a unanimous vote.

Wm. F. Phelps, LL. D., of Minnesota, presented the following resolution :

Resolved, That the Board of Directors of this Association be requested to transfer the amount received for life-membership at this meeting and during the current year from the general to the permanent fund for investment with the proceeds of life-directorships now being established.

Referred to the Board of Directors.

The committee on Nominations was directed to select a committee of one from each State to solicit life-memberships in this Association.

GENERAL SESSION.

Gen. S. C. Armstrong, of Virginia, addressed the Association on "A Six Years' Experience in Indian Education at Hampton, Virginia." Remarks on Indian Education were also made by Gen. John Eaton, of Washington, D. C. A song, "America," in the Dakota language, was then sung by a choir of students from the Santee Normal Training School, Santee Agency, Nebraska.

The following resolution, introduced by Mr. Pratt of the Santee Agency, was adopted :

Resolved, That the practical as well as humane solution of the Indian question involves education of all Indian youth in such a manner as will best fit them for civilized life and for the duties and obligations of citizenship, and, to this end, the General

Government which long since assumed and now exercises supreme control over the Indian tribes should at once organize an efficient system of schools in the whole Indian country; and the training in the schools thus organized and supported should include, so long as may be necessary, the teaching of those trades and occupations by which the Indian may earn a living by honest labor,—a fundamental condition of civilized life.

A collection, amounting to about \$175, was taken up to defray the expenses incurred in bringing the normal students from the Santee Normal Training School to this meeting, and it was voted that whatever sum additional may be necessary for this purpose should be paid from the funds of the General Association.

Supt. B. A. Hinsdale, of Cleveland, then read a paper on "The Constant in Education."

The chairman appointed as a committee on the Exposition as a whole, Wm. T. Harris, LL. D., of Massachusetts, and the following committees on various departments of the Exposition:

On Industrial and Technical Education—J. L. Pickard, chairman, Iowa; D. B. Hagar, Massachusetts; John Hancock, Ohio; S. R. Thompson, Nebraska; John Baldwin, Texas.

On State Exhibits—Aaron Gove, chairman, Colorado; G. J. Orr, Georgia; H. G. Gass, Michigan; C. C. Rounds, New Hampshire; L. D. Brown, Ohio.

On Art—C. N. Thompson, chairman, Indiana; Larkin Dunton, Massachusetts; W. W. Folwell, Minnesota; A. J. Rickoff, New York; Mrs. John Bascom, Wisconsin.

On Special Exhibits—J. H. Hoose, chairman, New York; E. T. Tappan, Ohio; W. H. Barringer, New Jersey; V. C. Dibble, South Carolina; A. G. Boyden, Massachusetts.

On Kindergarten—F. Louis Soldan, chairman, Missouri; Z. Richards, Washington; J. B. Peaslee, Ohio; Mrs. E. A. Blaker, Indiana; J. W. Stearns, Wisconsin.

Adjourned.

WOMAN'S EVENING.

SECTION A.

Thursday evening was set apart by the Association as woman's evening; and the chief meeting of the occasion was held in the Assembly Chamber.

President Bicknell opened the meeting by announcing the following Committee on Temperance which he had appointed and which was to report at Friday's meeting: Dr. John Bascom, Wisconsin; Mary Allen West, Illinois; Henry B. Norton, California; Eva D. Kellogg, Massachusetts;

B. G. Northrop, Connecticut; May Wright Sewell, Indiana; W. A. Mowry, Rhode Island.

He introduced Miss Sarah E. Doyle, of Rhode Island, who delivered a brief address and presided during the evening. Addresses on "Woman's Work in Education" were delivered by Mrs. May Wright Sewell, of Indiana, Mrs. Louisa P. Hopkins, of Massachusetts, and Miss Frances E. Willard, of Illinois.

SECTION B.

Section B met in the Congregational Church; President T. W. Bicknell presided, and Dr. Chapin, president of Beloit College, led in prayer.

President Bicknell then introduced Miss Frances E. Willard, of Chicago, president of the Woman's Christian Temperance Union, who spoke on "Temperance in Schools." She was followed by Mrs. Eva D. Kellogg, of Massachusetts, on "Needs in American Education," and by Miss Clara Conway, of Tennessee, on "The Needs of Southern Women." After adjournment of the sections the Association attended a reception tendered by Governor Rusk at his private residence.

FRIDAY, JULY 18, 1884, 8:30 A. M.

CONGREGATIONAL CHURCH.

President Bicknell in the chair. The session was opened with singing by the choir, and prayer was offered by Rev. Dr. Allen, of Illinois. Despatches and other congratulatory communications from various persons were read by the secretary.

The resolution of Mr. Stevenson, referred to the Board of Directors, was reported back to the General Association for action. The question to be considered was amended so as to read, "What science teaching should find a place in the courses of study for Elementary and Secondary Schools and what methods of instruction should be made use of?"

The Board of Directors reported that they had approved the application of the Kindergarten and Musical Associations to be admitted as departments of the General Association.

The committee on Resolutions presented a resolution in reference to the Mormons. Report recommitted.

The following resolutions were then offered and adopted:

Thanking the local papers and reporters of other papers here for their full and accurate reports of the meetings.

Thanking Senator Blair for his successful efforts in behalf of the common schools of the country.

That a committee of five be appointed by the chair, to report next year, on the insufficiency of teachers' salaries and the terms of teachers' office.

That a committee be appointed to report next year on the propriety of introducing political economy and physics into the public schools.

Resolved, That we have heard with deep interest the statements made by Hon. E. A. Burke, Director General, and Commissioner Eaton, respecting the coming World's Industrial and Cotton Centennial Exposition in the city of New Orleans and especially respecting the proposed Educational Exhibit therein, and it is earnestly hoped that all State and local school officers and all teachers may heartily co-operate with the United States Commissioner of Education in his efforts to make this department of the Exposition worthy of the great cause of popular education.

Resolved, That we recommend that the excellent collection of school products and appliances now on exhibition in Madison in connection with this meeting, be preserved by those who have made these contributions and that they be made, so far as may be practicable, a part of the New Orleans exhibit.

Resolved, That in view of the valuable results of Arbor Day work in the six States where such a day has been observed, alike upon the school and the home, this Association recommends the general observance of Arbor Day for schools in all our States.

Resolved, That the National Educational Association express their deep sense of joy and gratitude that it has pleased a kind Providence to preserve the lives of the heroic Lieutenant Greely and a few of his brave companions; and while deploring the deaths of so many men equally courageous, we, as teachers, cannot but feel elated by the fact that an American has added so much to our geographical knowledge, and planted the American flag nearer to the North Pole than any other explorers.

TEMPERANCE.

Dr. Bascom, of the special temperance committee to whom the various resolutions on temperance had been referred, made the following report, which was adopted :

The committee on temperance notes with profound satisfaction the practical direction now being given to the aroused temperance sentiment of this country. Especially do we rejoice in the well-directed efforts of the Women's Christian Temperance Union to secure instruction in physiology and hygiene in all grades of the public school system, with particular reference to the effect of alcoholic stimulants upon the human system. Legislation to this effect has already been secured in five States,—New York, Michigan, New Hampshire, Vermont, and Rhode Island. We recommend the hearty co-operation of this Association in making such legislation general throughout the land.

The committee on Nominations then presented the following report :

To the National Educational Association :

The Committee on Nomination of Officers for the ensuing year, beg leave to offer the following report :

Being fully impressed with the importance of holding the next annual meeting at the South and feeling anxious above all that said meeting shall equal and if possible surpass the present meeting in representation from all sections of the country as well as in enthusiasm for the cause of education, your committee have dropped all minor considerations of personal preference, of prescriptive custom, and of sectional pride, and have united in nominating for re-election the men who have proved themselves in this emergency able to draw together a representation of educators entirely unprecedented in numbers and character in the annals of our nation. They accordingly submit the following list of officers for the following year and recommend that the same be elected :

For President—Thomas W. Bicknell, Massachusetts.

For Secretary—Horace S. Tarbell, Indiana.

For Treasurer—N. A. Calkins, New York.

Vice-Presidents—D. F. DeWolf, of Ohio; J. Baldwin, of Texas; B. F. Wright, of Minnesota; B. L. Butcher, of West Virginia; B. G. Northrop, of Connecticut; H. E. Speer, of Kansas; Miss H. M. Morris, of New York; J. W. Dickinson, of Massachusetts; E. H. Long, of Missouri; John Swett, of California; G. P. Beard, of New York; Miss M. S. Cooper, of New York.

Counsellors at large—Eli T. Tappan, of Ohio; John Eaton, of the District of Columbia; W. E. Sheldon, of Massachusetts.

Counsellors—L. S. Thompson, of Indiana; Henry Raab, of Illinois; Henry Sabin, of Iowa; Irwin Shepard, of Minnesota; A. R. Taylor, of Kansas; W. W. W. Jones, of Nebraska; J. B. Carterlin, of California; Aaron Gove, of Colorado; J. W. Phelps, of Vermont; A. G. Boyden, of Massachusetts; Merrick Lyon, of Rhode Island; Mrs. M. A. Stone, of Connecticut; Mrs. Rebecca D. Rickoff, of New York; E. A. Singer, of Pennsylvania; W. N. Barringer, of New Jersey; R. Bingham, of North Carolina; Miss Ella Peques, of Mississippi; V. C. Dibble, of South Carolina; Julia S. Tutweiler, of Alabama; Alexander Hogg, of Texas; Miss Clara Conway, of Tennessee; John M. Birch, of West Virginia; C. M. Woodward, of Missouri; R. W. Stevenson, of Ohio; C. C. Rounds, of New Hampshire; Mrs. F. C. Mallon, of Georgia; C. W. Heywood, of Michigan; Z. Richards, of the District of Columbia.

Your committee recommend that the counsellor for each State and Territory be the agent of the Association for procuring life-memberships and life-directorships.

The report was received. The president and secretary declining re-election the report was re-committed to the committee on Nominations.

The committee on Necrology reported that no person known to have been officially connected with this Association had deceased during the year. The report of the committee was accepted and the committee was continued for the coming year.

Mons. Capel was then by vote of the Association invited to address the meeting. To this invitation he courteously responded.

The Board of Directors reported in reference to a proposed International Council of Education, asking that the proposition be referred to a special committee. The report was received and the committees on this subject heretofore appointed by the National Council of Education and the Department of Superintendence were constituted jointly the committee of the Association.

The committee on Nomination of Officers presented the following amended report:

President—F. Louis Soldan, of Missouri; *Vice-President*—Thomas W. Bicknell, of Massachusetts; *Treasurer*—N. A. Calkins, of New York; *Secretary*—W. E. Sheldon, of Massachusetts, and other nominations as previously reported.

The report of the committee was accepted and adopted.

REPORT FROM THE NATIONAL COUNCIL OF EDUCATION.

E. E. White, LL. D., President of the National Council of Education, reported orally on the proceedings of that body during its meeting, which opened on Thursday evening, the 10th instant, and closed on Tuesday afternoon last. Reports were submitted by the following standing committees: On "Hygiene in Education;" on "Recess or No Recess;" on "Elementary Education;" on "Oral Teaching;" on "City School Systems;" on "Supervision of City Schools;" on "Pedagogics;" on "Pedagogics as a Science." A report by a joint committee, consisting of the special committee on preparatory schools and the standing committees on higher education and secondary education, on preparation for college, was made, and a report of progress by the special committee on pedagogical inquiry. An abstract of these reports will be submitted to the Secretary of the General Association for publication in the volume of proceedings. A paper on "Elementary Education" was then read by G. Stanley Hall, LL. D., of Maryland; one on "Methods in Teaching," by Hon. J. W. Dickinson, of Massachusetts, and one on "Primary Education," by J. M. Greenwood, Missouri. These papers were discussed by Hon. W. T. Harris, of Massachusetts; Mr. Rust, of Illinois; Prof. W. N. Hailman, of Indiana; Col. F. W. Parker, of Illinois, and Mons. Capel.

RESOLUTIONS.

D. B. Hagar, of Massachusetts, introduced the following resolution, which was adopted:

Resolved, That the thanks of this Association are hereby tendered to Hon. H. M. Teller, Secretary of the Interior, for his endeavors in behalf of education in support of the Bureau of Education, and for the establishment of industrial and other schools among the Indians.

Upon motion of Dr. E. E. White, of Ohio, the president was authorized to appoint a committee of fifty to represent the National Educational Association at the World's Centennial and Cotton Industrial Exposition;

and, upon motion of Dr. John Hancock, of Ohio, a resolution was adopted, authorizing the Board of Directors to publish the proceedings of the National Council of Education with those of the National Educational Association, if in their judgment it was deemed advisable.

The meeting then adjourned.

FRIDAY EVENING, JULY 18, 1884.

Assembly Chamber, President Bicknell in the chair. Music by Leuder's Band. Prayer by Rev. L. Moss, LL. D., of Indiana.

An address was delivered by Rev. A. D. Mayo on "The Duty of the Nation to its Schools."

After the delivery of Dr. Mayo's address, Miss Nast, of Madison, sang a solo, entitled "The Three Singers." Mons. Capel then addressed the assembly on "The Catholic View of Public Education."

At this stage in the proceedings, President Bicknell announced that for the accommodation of the hundreds who were crowding the entrance to the Assembly Chamber, striving in vain to gain admission, a meeting would be organized outside, at the east portico of the Capitol building, which would be addressed by Mons. Capel, of England; Rev. Dr. Mayo, of Massachusetts; Prof. F. W. Parker, of Chicago, Ill., and other gentlemen.

NATIONAL AID.

A resolution was introduced by Mr. Cowden, of Florida, and adopted, favoring National Aid to education in the South.

E. E. White, LL. D., then read the following resolutions, which were unanimously adopted:

Resolved, That this twenty-seventh annual meeting of the National Educational Association is without precedent in the number of persons in attendance, the number of States and Territories, school systems and institutions represented, the magnificent reception tendered, and the enthusiastic interest of all who have participated in it, and we, one and all, felicitate ourselves that it has been our happy fortune to witness this grand triumph of Association effort.

Resolved, That this unparalleled success is chiefly due to the energy, devotion, and organizing ability of Hon. T. W. Bicknell, the president of the Association, whose wise and comprehensive plans, enthusiastic and self-sacrificing efforts and directing hand have inspired and guided the great undertaking from its inception to its present triumphant close, and no formal words can properly express our thankful appreciation.

Resolved, That we also recognize the praiseworthy and successful labors of the treasurer, secretary, railroad secretaries, and other officers of the Association, who have so earnestly and wisely co-operated in all the efforts which have resulted so happily and successfully; and we would specially mention the efforts of Hon. J. H. Smart, the director of the exposition, and his able and faithful associates, who have made this department so attractive and instructive a feature of the meeting, and also to those who, at great cost and labor, have made these excellent displays of school products and appliances.

Resolved, That our thanks and gratitude are due His Excellency Gov. Rusk and other State officers of Wisconsin, the mayor and other officers of the city, the State department of public instruction, the school officers of the city, the local committees of arrangements, and all others who, in an official capacity, have contributed to the success of this meeting and the entertainment of its members; and, above all, we must record our regrets that we cannot command words that adequately express our admiration of the public spirit, open-handed and large-hearted hospitality of the citizens of this beautiful lake-set city, culminating last evening in the Governor's brilliant reception—an example in entertaining and honoring this Association which has never been approached by any other city, and, as we believe, will never be surpassed. We accept all this impressive demonstration of esteem and honor as an expression of the deep and abiding interest which the people of this grand Northwest feel in the great cause of public education—a demonstration of confidence and interest which more than offsets all the carping and unwise criticisms of the public school in the last decade.

Resolved, That our hearty thanks are due and are hereby tendered the daily papers of Madison for their excellent reports of our proceedings, to the agents of the press for their labors in disseminating these reports throughout the country; the churches for their open doors; the hotels and boarding-houses for reduced rates; the railroad companies for liberal reduction of fare, and especially those railroad officials who have so heartily co-operated with the officers of the Association in disseminating information respecting this meeting; the leader and members of Leuder's orchestra and Professor Parker and the vocalists under his direction, for their excellent music; and, finally, we thank every body and every thing that has borne a burden, put forth an effort, or made a contribution to this the largest and most inspiring educational convention ever held.

Addresses on the above resolutions were delivered by Gen. Eaton, Rev. Dr. Moss, and President Bicknell, and they were adopted by a rising vote.

The president then announced that short speeches would be delivered by representatives of several States and Territories, and the following persons addressed the meeting: Prof. Freeman, university of Wisconsin; Dr. Searing, Minnesota; Dr. Allen, Illinois; Prof. Edson, Iowa; W. E. Sheldon, Massachusetts; Alice S. Nichols, Montana; Hon. J. C. Shaddock, Colorado; Miss Sue D. Center, Arkansas; President Drehr, Virginia; Hon. S. M. Arnell, Tennessee; Mrs. Clara Conway, Tennessee; N. A. Calkins, New York; Prof. Sellers, Texas; V. C. Dibble, South Carolina; Mr. Cowden, Florida; J. G. Ryals, Alabama; Prof. Canfield, Kansas; Gov. Rusk, Wisconsin; Gen. Atwood, Wisconsin; Mr. Burdick, Wisconsin; Mr. Sheldon, Wisconsin; Mr. Moseley, Wisconsin; Supt. Graham, Wisconsin; and Asst. Supt. Chandler, Wisconsin.

PRESIDENT BICKNELL'S FAREWELL.

President Bicknell then, in appropriate language, presented a gavel to the National Educational Association, through Vice-President Butcher, in the absence of the recently-elected president, Dr. F. Louis Soldan, of Missouri. He said that its head was made from the wood of a cherry-tree planted by Thomas Jefferson at his beautiful retreat at Monticello, and the handle from the red-wood of the Santa Cruz Mountains of California, the two components representing the welding of the two extremes of the

Nation,—the East and the West. Mr. Bicknell feelingly referred to his official connection with the Association, and returned thanks to all who had rendered him valuable assistance at various times.

Adjourned.

H. S. TARBELL, *Secretary*.

MINUTES OF THE MEETING OF THE BOARD OF DIRECTORS.

MADISON, WIS., JULY 15, 1884.

The Board met at 4 P. M. at the Park Hotel. Present: Messrs. Bicknell, White, Sheldon, Calkins, Wright, Dibble, Northrop, Orr, Boyden, Rickoff, Gove, Hewett, Sabin, Stevenson, Lyon, Peaslee, Butcher, Tappan, Barringer, Rounds, Phelps, L. S. Thompson, Baldwin, Shepard, Newell, and Tarbell. President Bicknell in the chair. Prayer by Dr. White.

Minutes of new Board of Directors held at Saratoga, July 11, 1884, were read and approved.

Report of Treasurer Calkins for the meeting held at Saratoga in 1883 was accepted and referred to the Auditing Committee. This committee, appointed by the president, consists of Messrs. Pickard, Rickoff, and Hagar.

Remarks were made by President Bicknell giving the reasons why Madison was selected as the place for the present meeting and stating the plan upon which the meeting has been organized. Statements of expenditures and receipts for this meeting were given.

Dr. Tappan made a report from the trustees of the permanent fund. Reported \$200 in the permanent fund. This money is loaned, but the party to whom it is loaned desires to repay it, and instruction was asked. There is also a fund of \$80 bearing interest since 1881. Referred to the committee on Audit.

Dr. Tappan presented the following resolution which he desired to present to the Association and asked the approval of the Board of Directors.

Resolved, That a committee be appointed by the Board of Directors to consider the organization of a permanent and international Council of Education; that the committee be authorized to consult with other committees appointed for this purpose; and in the name of the National Educational Association of the United States, to call for a first meeting of such International Council at New Orleans the coming winter.

Approval given.

Messrs. D. N. Camp and E. C. Hewett were selected members of the National Council of Education for the term of six years.

The request of the treasurer to be allowed to enter certain school boards and societies as life-members of the Association on payment of the usual fee, was referred to the Auditing Committee.

The president, secretary and Dr. Phelps were appointed a committee to arrange time for a meeting of the ex-officers of the National Educational Association.

All financial questions affecting this meeting were referred to the Auditing Committee.

An Executive Committee consisting of Messrs. Tappan, Shepard, and Lyon was appointed to assist the president in the conduct of this meeting.

Adjourned subject to the call of the president.

MADISON, WIS., JULY 17, 1884.

The Board of Directors of the National Educational Association met at 2 P. M. at the Park Hotel. Present: Messrs. Bicknell, White, Phelps, Soldan, Sheldon, Orr, Northrop, Butcher, Sickel, Wright, Baldwin, Tarbell.

The minutes of the previous meeting of the Board of Directors were read and approved. The question of the payment of certain bills for carpenter work on tables, etc., for the exhibition was discussed and referred to a committee consisting of Messrs. Gove, Sheldon, and Wright.

A communication of Dr. Smart and the treasurer of the exposition was referred to a special committee, consisting of C. O. Thompson, Indiana; Lucius Fairchild, Wisconsin; and Larkin Dunton, Massachusetts.

W. F. Phelps presented the following report from the ex-officers of the Association.

MADISON, WIS., JULY 17, 1884.

To the Board of Directors of the National Educational Association:

Gentlemen: At a meeting of the ex-presidents and other officers of the Association held on the 16th inst., the matter of securing an endowment of the Association through life-directorships and other agencies was under consideration, and after an informal interchange of views the undersigned was requested to submit to your respected body the following summary of their views:

1. That it is exceedingly desirable in view of the growing influence and usefulness of the Association that it should, as soon as practicable, be placed beyond the contingency of pecuniary embarrassment and be made self-sustaining.

2. That to this end they urge that the scheme of creating life-directorships on the payment of the sum of \$100 be carried forward to completion as vigorously as possible.

3. That life members who have already paid the fee of \$20 be allowed to become life directors, on the payment to the treasurer of the further sum of \$80.

4. That these payments may, at the option of the candidate for a life-directorship, be made in four equal instalments during the year in which the first payment shall have been made.

5. That during and after the present year all sums received for life-memberships be transferred to the permanent or endowment fund with the proceeds of the life-directorships in the hands of the trustees of the said endowment fund as provided by the constitution.

6. They recommend in furtherance of this scheme that a suitable certificate or diploma of life-directorship be provided and issued to all who shall avail themselves of the privilege of such directorship.

Respectfully submitted.

W. F. PHELPS, *Chairman of the Meeting of Ex-Presidents.*

Consideration of this report was deferred until the next meeting.

A communication from certain persons asking for the creation of a new Department, to be known as the Department of Vocal Music was received, and by vote was referred to Dr. White.

Meeting adjourned to 5 P. M.

MADISON, WIS., JULY 17, 1884.

An adjourned meeting of the Board of Directors of National Education was held at Park Hotel at 5 P. M. Present: Messrs. Bicknell, Smart, Rickoff, Pickard, Butcher, Gove, Calkins, Dibble, Wright, Shepard, Sickel, Tappan, Northrop, Sabin, Baldwin, Phelps, Thompson, Tarbell. The minutes of the last meeting were read and approved.

A report from the committee appointed at the 2 P. M. session to consider certain claims for carpenter work, etc., was presented. The report was as follows:

We, the directors of the National Educational Association recognizing the great educational value of the Exposition to the members of this Association, and learning that a certain portion of the local expenses thereof has been voluntarily contributed by the exhibitors of the purely educational products of the Exposition as represented in the departments of Art, Industrial Education, Kindergarten, State Exhibits, Pedagogical, Literary, and other exhibits of a purely educational character, recommend the appropriation of a sum not exceeding \$250 to be used to defray these necessary expenses of the director in preparing the Exposition.

AARON GOVE.
B. F. WRIGHT.
W. E. SHELDON.

The report was adopted.

The request of the managers of the World's Industrial and Cotton Exposition that the exhibits here made be forwarded to New Orleans for exhibition there in December next, was referred to Dr. Smart with a request that he confer with the several exhibitors.

Certain invitations to the Association to hold its next meeting at places named were received and referred to the new Board of Directors.

A resolution in respect to transfer of funds presented to the General Association and referred to the Board of Directors was received and referred to the Auditing Committee.

A resolution on Science Teaching in Secondary Schools presented by B. W. Stevenson, of Ohio, was referred to the General Association.

Dr. White reported on a request for a new department recommending that a new department of Vocal Music be created. The name was changed to department of Music Education, and the approval of the Board of Directors given. The secretary was instructed to notify the signers of this request of this action.

A committee consisting of Mr. Shepard, of Winona, was appointed to receive a communication from the Froebel Institute in reference to becoming a Department of the Association.

The Association of the Instructors of the Deaf and Dumb was invited to meet with the National Educational Association next year, and the secretary was instructed to notify this body of this action and of the provisions of our constitution.

On motion of E. T. Tappan the president was directed to reply to certain communications as to an International Educational Association that the communications referring to International Association were referred to the General Association with the recommendation that the joint committees from the Department of Superintendence and the Council, with the President of the Association, constitute the joint committee on this subject.

The Froebel Institute was authorized to organize as a Department of the Association.

Adjourned.

5 P. M., FRIDAY, JULY 18, 1884.

Meeting of the Board of Directors at the Park Hotel.

Present: Messrs. Bicknell, Gove, Sheldon, Calkins, Hagar, Peaslee, Dibble, Rickoff, and Tarbell.

The treasurer was authorized to pay to the order of James H. Smart so much of \$250 as may be necessary to pay certain claims of exhibitors in accordance with the report of the special committee thereon.

Adjourned.

H. S. TARBELL, *Secretary*.

NEW BOARD OF DIRECTORS.

MADISON, WIS., JULY 18, 1884.

The new Board of Directors of the National Educational Association met at Room 5, Park Hotel, at 5 o'clock P. M. The roll was called by the secretary, and a quorum was present. Thomas W. Bicknell, first Vice-

President, occupied the chair, in the absence of the president, F. Louis Soldan.

The question of Finance was discussed. Thomas W. Bicknell, F. Louis Soldan, W. E. Sheldon, N. A. Calkins, and D. B. Hagar, were chosen a committee to consider the best means of raising and investing a permanent fund for the Association, with full power to act.

H. S. Tarbell, Thomas W. Bicknell, the President of the National Council of Education, and the Presidents of the Departments were chosen a Committee on Publication of the proceedings and addresses for 1884.

Zalmon Richards, of Washington, offered the following resolution, which was adopted. .

Resolved, That such of the discussions of the General Association and of the several departments as the Committee on Publication may deem best, shall be published in the volume of the proceedings for 1884.

Adjourned.

MADISON, WIS., JULY 18, 1884.

The new Board of Directors held a second meeting in the Senate Chamber, at 11 o'clock p. m., Vice-President B. L. Butcher, of West Virginia, in the chair.

Invitations were read by the secretary from persons representing the following places for the next meeting in July, 1885: St. Augustine, Fla.; White Sulphur Springs, W. Va.; Hot Springs, Ark.; Thousand Island Park Association, N. Y.; Chautauqua, N. Y.; Nashville, Tenn.; and Saratoga Springs, N. Y. Richmond, Va., Washington, D. C., Hampton, Va., and Asheville, N. C., were also mentioned.

After considerable discussion of the place for the next meeting, it was voted on motion of E. E. White, of Ohio, to refer the whole question of time and place of next meeting to the Executive Committee with full power to decide the question and make all arrangements. The Executive Committee was chosen to consist of the president, secretary, treasurer, President of National Council of Education and the Presidents of the eight departments.

The committee, consisting of C. C. Rounds, of New Hampshire, George D. Brown, of Indiana, and George D. Farnham, of Nebraska, to whom the petition of E. C. Carrigan, and nineteen others, for the establishment of a Department of Evening Schools was referred, reported inexpedient to create such a department, and the board voted to grant leave to withdraw on the ground that the topics taught in the Evening Schools come properly under departments of the Association already existing.

A resolution asking the Executive Committee to consider the claims of the *South* as the place of the next meeting, provided suitable arrangements could be made in that section, was passed.

Adjourned.

W. E. SHELDON, *Secretary*.

CONSTITUTION
OF THE
NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION.

PREAMBLE.

To elevate the character and advance the interests of the profession of teaching, and to promote the cause of popular education in the United States, we, whose names are subjoined, agree to adopt the following

CONSTITUTION.

[As amended July 13 and 16, 1880.]

ARTICLE I. — NAME.

This Association shall be styled the National Educational Association.

ARTICLE II. — DEPARTMENTS

[As amended July 4, 1884.]

SECTION 1. It shall consist of eight departments: the first, of School Superintendence; the second, of Normal Schools; the third, of Elementary Schools; the fourth, of Higher Instruction; the fifth, of Industrial Education; the sixth, of Art Education; the seventh, of Kindergarten Instruction; the eighth, of Music Education; and a National Council of Education.

SECT. 2. Other departments may be organized in the manner prescribed in this Constitution.

ARTICLE III. — MEMBERSHIP.

SECTION 1. Any person in any way connected with the work of education shall be eligible to membership. Such person may become a member of this Association

by paying two dollars and signing this Constitution; and he may continue a member by the payment of an annual fee of two dollars. On his neglect to pay such fee, his membership will cease.

SECT. 2. Each department may prescribe its own conditions of membership, provided that no person be admitted to such membership who is not a member of the general Association.

SECT. 3. Any person eligible to membership may become a life-member by paying at once twenty dollars.

ARTICLE IV.—OFFICERS.

SECTION 1. The officers of this Association shall be a President, twelve Vice-Presidents, a Secretary, a Treasurer, one Counsellor for each State, District, or Territory represented in the Association, and the officers charged with the administration of their respective departments. Any friend of education may become a life-director by the donation of one hundred dollars to the Association at one time, either by himself or on his behalf; and any educational association may secure a perpetual directorship by a like donation of one hundred dollars, the director to be appointed annually or for life.

SECT. 2. The President, Vice-Presidents, Secretary, Treasurer, Counsellors, Life-Directors, President of the Council, and presiding officers of their respective departments shall constitute the Board of Directors, and, as such, shall have power to appoint such committees from their own number as they shall deem expedient.

SECT. 3. The elective officers of the Association shall be chosen by ballot, unless otherwise ordered, on the second day of each annual session, a majority of the votes cast being necessary for a choice. They shall continue in office until the close of the annual session subsequent to their election, and until their successors are chosen.

SECT. 4. Each department shall be administered by a President, Vice-President, Secretary, and such other officers as it shall deem necessary to conduct its affairs.

SECT. 5. The President shall preside at all meetings of the Association and of the Board of Directors, and shall perform the duties usually devolving upon a presiding officer. In his absence, the first Vice-President in order who is present shall preside; and in the absence of all Vice-Presidents, a *pro tempore* chairman shall be appointed on nomination, the Secretary putting the question.

SECT. 6. The Secretary shall keep a full and accurate report of the proceedings of the general meetings of the Association and all meetings of the Board of Directors, and shall conduct such correspondence as the Directors may assign, and shall have his records present at all meetings of the Association and of the Board of Directors. The Secretary of each department shall, in addition to performing the duties usually pertaining to his office, keep a list of the members of his department.

SECT. 7. The Treasurer shall receive and hold in safe keeping all moneys paid to the Association, shall expend the same only upon the order of the Committee of Finance, shall keep an exact account of his receipts and expenditures, with vouchers for the latter, which accounts he shall render to the Board of Directors prior to each regular meeting of the Association, and shall also present an abstract thereof to the Association. He shall give bond for the faithful discharge of his duties as may be required by the Board of Directors. The Treasurer's term of office shall continue till the settlement of the business of the session for which he is elected.

SECT. 8. The Board of Directors shall have power to fill all vacancies in their own body, shall have in charge the general interests of the Association, shall make all necessary arrangements for its meetings, and shall do all in its power to make it a useful and honorable institution. Upon the written application of twenty members of the Association for permission to establish a new department, they may grant such permission. Such new department shall in all respects be entitled to the same rights and privileges as the others. The formation of such department shall in effect be a sufficient amendment to this Constitution for the insertion of its name in Article II., and the Secretary shall make the necessary alterations.

SECT. 9. The Board of Directors shall appoint three Trustees, into whose hands shall be placed for safe keeping and investment all funds which the Association may receive from the creation of life-directorships, or from donations, unless the donors shall specify other purposes for which they may be used. The income of such funds so invested shall be used exclusively in defraying the expense of publishing the annual volume of the Association, unless the donors shall specify otherwise. The Board of Directors shall require such Trustees to give to the Association their joint bond in a sum equal to twice the amount of such trust fund as may be in their hands.

ARTICLE V.—MEETINGS.

SECTION 1. The annual meeting of the Association shall be held at such time and place as shall be determined by the Board of Directors.

SECT. 2. Special meetings may be called by the President at the request of five Directors.

SECT. 3. Any department of the Association may hold a special meeting at such time and place as by its own regulations it shall appoint.

SECT. 4. The Board of Directors shall hold their regular meetings at the place, and not less than two hours before the assembling of the Association.

SECT. 5. Special meetings may be held at such other times and places as the Board or the President shall determine.

SECT. 6. Each new Board shall organize at the session of its election. At its first meeting a Committee on Publication shall be appointed, which shall consist of the Secretary of the Association for the previous year, and one member from each department.

ARTICLE VI.—BY-LAWS.

By-laws, not inconsistent with this Constitution, may be adopted by a two-thirds vote of the Association.

ARTICLE VII.—AMENDMENTS.

This Constitution may be altered or amended at a regular meeting by the unanimous vote of the members present, or by a two-thirds vote of the members present, provided that the alteration or amendment has been substantially proposed in writing at a previous meeting.

BY-LAWS.

1. At each regular meeting of the Association there shall be appointed a Committee on Nominations, one on Honorary Members, and one on Resolutions.
2. The President, First Vice-President, and Secretary shall constitute a Committee on Finance.
3. Each paying member of the Association shall be entitled to a copy of its Proceedings.
4. No paper, lecture, or address shall be read before the Association or any of its departments in the absence of its author, nor shall any such paper, lecture, or address be published in the volume of Proceedings without the consent of the Association in each case.

MEMBERSHIP

OF THE

NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION.

The dates in the margin indicate the year in which the several memberships began. The addresses have been changed from those last published in cases where information of a change of residence has been furnished to the treasurer. And where there is a reasonable doubt as to the residence it is indicated by (?). The * indicates that the member has deceased. The names printed in *Italics* represent those who were present at the Madison meeting.

PERPETUAL DIRECTORSHIP.

PENNSYLVANIA.

1879. Philadelphia Teachers' Institute.
Represented in 1883 and '84 by *M. A. Sickel*.

LIFE DIRECTORS.

NEW YORK.

1881. *Rickoff, Andrew J.*, Yonkers.

WEST VIRGINIA.

1877. Marshall, T. Marcellus, Glenville.

LIFE MEMBERSHIPS.

ALABAMA.

1881. Woodward, G. A., Selma.

COLORADO.

1883. Gove, Aaron, Denver.

CONNECTICUT.

1864. Barnard, Henry, Hartford. 1870. Stone, Mrs. M. A., New Milford.
 1884. Northrop, Birdsey G., Clinton.

DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA.

1884. Bell, Alex. Graham, Wash- 1864. Richards, Zalmon, Washington.
 ton. 1880. Wilson, J. Ormond, Washington.
 1880. Hütz, John, Washington.

GEORGIA.

1881. Mallon, Mrs. Frances C., At- 1880. Setzepfand, A., Dalton.
 lanta.

ILLINOIS.

1870. Allen, Ira W., Chicago. 1884. Hewitt, Edwin C., Normal.
 1884. Allyn, Robert, Carbondale. 1880. Partridge, Lelia E., Normal
 1884. Cheney, Augustus J., 149 Wabash Park, Cook Co.
 Ave., Chicago. 1884. Raab, Henry (State Supt.),
 1864. Eberhart, J. F., Irving Park, Springfield.
 Chicago. 1876. Schmitz, J. Adolph, Lake
 1876. Forbes, Alexander, 369 Wabash Forest (?).
 Ave., Chicago. 1864. *White, S. H., Peoria.
 1884. Hayward, Emily A., 932 S. 4th
 St., Springfield.

INDIANA.

1876. Bell, W. A., Indianapolis. 1866. McRae, H. S., Marion, Grant Co.
 1880. Brown, Geo. P., Terre Haute. 1879. *Mills, Caleb, Crawfordsville.
 1870. Hobbs, B. C., Bloomington, 1877. Smart, James H., Lafayette.
 Park Co. 1876. Stevens, M. C., Lafayette.
 1880. Irwin, J. S., Fort Wayne. 1876. Thompson, L. S., Lafayette.

IOWA.

1876. Armstrong, Allen, Sioux City. 1880. Gilchrist, J. C., Cedar Falls.
 1870. Crosby, W. E., Des Moines. 1864. *Wells, D. F., Iowa City.

KANSAS.

1883. Taylor, A. R. (State Nor. School), Emporia.

KENTUCKY.

1877. Bartholomew, W. C., Louisville. 1877. Monsarrat, Mrs. L. L., Louis-
 1877. Kalfus, Anna I., 732 Second ville.
 St., Louisville.

MARYLAND.

1876. Newell, M. A. (State Nor. 1876. Richmond, Sarah E., Baltimore.
 School), Baltimore.

MASSACHUSETTS.

- | | |
|---|---|
| 1882. <i>Bicknell, Thomas W.</i> , 16 Hawley St., Boston. | 1880. <i>Marble, Albert P.</i> , Worcester. |
| 1864. <i>Hagar, D. B.</i> , Salem. | 1865. <i>Sheldon, Wm. E.</i> , 16 Hawley St., Boston. |
| 1876. <i>Harris, Wm. T.</i> , Concord. | 1870. Tourjee, Eben, Boston. |
| 1870. Jones, D. W. (Roxbury), Boston. | 1870. Wilcox, M. C., Boston (?). |

MICHIGAN.

- | | |
|-------------------------------------|--------------------------------|
| 1870. Heywood, C. W., Cheshire (?). | 1866. Mayhew, Ira, Albion (?). |
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MINNESOTA.

1870. *Phelps, Wm. F.* (Supt. Schools), Winona.

MISSOURI.

- | | |
|---|--|
| 1880. Bibb-Sudborough, Grace C., Omaha (?). | 1876. Rollins, James S., Columbia (?). |
| 1864. Pennell, C. S., St. Louis (?). | 1877. <i>Soldan, F. Louis</i> , 1616 Hickory St., St. Louis. |
| 1870. *Read, Daniel, Columbia. | |

NEBRASKA.

- | | |
|--|--|
| 1876. Beals, S. D., Omaha (?). | 1884. <i>James, Henry M.</i> (Supt. Schools), Omaha. |
| 1884. <i>Currey, Robert</i> , Palmyra. | |

NEW HAMPSHIRE.

1876. *Rounds, C. C.* (Nor. School), Plymouth.

NEW JERSEY.

1880. *Spring, E. A.*, Perth Amboy.

NEW YORK.

- | | |
|--|---|
| 1871. Anderson, John J., 343 Adelphi St., Brooklyn. | 1876. Dorna, G. Videlia, New York (?). |
| 1864. Bradley, P., Lyons (?). | 1873. *Haines, Mrs. H. B., New York. |
| 1879. <i>Calkins, N. A.</i> , 124 East 80th St., New York. | 1882. Hodgdon, Josephine E., 354 Ninth St., Brooklyn, N. Y. |
| 1880. Coe, Miss E. M. (Bible House), New York. | 1870. <i>Hoose, James H.</i> , Cortland. |
| 1883. <i>Corey, Lucien B.</i> , Hicksville, Queen's Co. | 1879. Kraus, John, 7 East 22d St., New York. |
| 1864. Cruikshank, James, Oxford St., Brooklyn. | 1870. <i>Rickoff And. J.</i> , Yonkers. |
| 1864. Danforth, Edward, Elmira. | 1880. Rickoff, Mrs. R. D., Yonkers. |
| 1883. Day, Mrs. Albert, 252 Broadway, New York. | 1883. Steele, J. Dorman, Elmira. |
| | 1882. Stern, M., 27 East 44th St., New York. |
| | 1884. <i>Van Aiken, Mrs. G.</i> , 63 Park St., New York. |

NORTH CAROLINA.

1884. *Bingham, Robert*, Bingham School.

OHIO.

- | | |
|---|--|
| 1870. <i>Arey, Oliver</i> , Cleveland. | 1883. <i>Harvey, Thos. W.</i> , Painesville. |
| 1884. <i>Bennett, C. W.</i> (Supt. Schools),
Piqua. | 1876. <i>*Henkle, W. D.</i> , Salem. |
| 1880. <i>Bennett, Hampton</i> , Franklin. | 1870. <i>Holden, L. E.</i> , Cleveland (?). |
| 1880. <i>Brown, LeRoy D.</i> (State Com.),
Columbus. | 1879. <i>McMillan, Reuben</i> , Youngstown. |
| 1880. <i>Burns James J.</i> (Supt. Schools),
Dayton. | 1880. <i>McMillan, Mrs. S.</i> , Youngstown. |
| 1870. <i>Cole, W. H.</i> , Marysville. | 1880. <i>Miller, Lewis</i> , Akron. |
| 1883. <i>Coy, Eliab W.</i> (Hughes High
School), Cincinnati. | 1880. <i>*Norris J. A.</i> , Columbus. |
| 1866. <i>Curran, U. T.</i> , Sandusky. | 1880. <i>Peaslee, John B.</i> (Sup't Schools).
Cincinnati. |
| 1880. <i>Davidson, C. C.</i> , New Lisbon. | 1882. <i>Robert, J. A.</i> , Dayton. |
| 1881. <i>De Wolf, Daniel F.</i> , Columbus. | 1880. <i>Stevenson, R. W.</i> (Supt. Schools),
Columbus. |
| 1880. <i>Dutton, Bettie A.</i> , 94 State St.,
Cleveland. | 1882. <i>Tappan, Eli T.</i> , Gambier. |
| 1876. <i>Hancock, John</i> , Dayton. | 1870. <i>White, Emerson E.</i> , Walnut
Hills, Cincinnati. |
| 1865. <i>Hartshorn, O. N.</i> , Mt. Vernon. | 1880. <i>Widner, Esther</i> , Dayton. |
| | 1870. <i>Williams, Mrs. Delia A.</i> [Lath-
rop], Delaware. |

PENNSYLVANIA.

- | | |
|---|---|
| 1876. <i>Brooks, Edward</i> , 1416 Chestnut
St., Philadelphia. | 1879. <i>Paxson, Joseph A.</i> , Philadelphia. |
| 1879. <i>Foster, Rachel Gordon</i> , Philadel-
phia. | 1879. <i>Shippen, Edward</i> , Philadelphia. |
| 1879. <i>Gratz, Simon</i> , Philadelphia. | 1880. <i>Singer, Edgar A.</i> , 4767 Penn St.,
Philadelphia. |
| 1865. <i>Ingram, S. D.</i> , Harrisburg. | 1865. <i>Wickersham, J. P.</i> , Lancaster. |

RHODE ISLAND.

- | | |
|---|---|
| 1865. <i>*Greene, S. S.</i> , Providence. | 1872. <i>Stone, E. M.</i> , Providence. |
|---|---|

TEXAS.

1877. *Franklin, M. B.*, Grapevine (?).

VIRGINIA.

- | | |
|---------------------------------------|--|
| 1870. <i>Manly, R. M.</i> , Richmond. | 1870. <i>*McGuffey, W. C.</i> , Charlotte-
ville. |
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WISCONSIN.

- | | |
|---|---|
| 1884. <i>Albee, Geo. S.</i> (Normal School),
Oshkosh. | 1884. <i>Chandler, W. H.</i> (State Capitol),
Madison. |
| 1884. <i>Aylward, John Arthur</i> , Black
Earth. | 1884. <i>Charlton, E. A.</i> , Brodhead. |
| 1884. <i>Bascom, John</i> (Pres. University),
Madison. | 1884. <i>Clark, L. N.</i> , Tomah. |
| 1884. <i>Beck, George</i> , Platteville. | 1884. <i>Eden, Philip</i> , Platteville. |
| 1884. <i>Carpenter, J. H.</i> , Madison. | 1884. <i>Emery, J. Q.</i> , Fort Atkinson. |
| | 1884. <i>Flavin, J. T.</i> , Watertown. |

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|---|---|
| 1884. <i>Graham, Robert</i> (State Supt.),
Madison. | 1884. <i>Shaw, Samuel</i> , Antigo. |
| 1884. <i>Harvey, Lorenzo Dow</i> , Sheboygan. | 1884. <i>Stark, Joshua</i> , Milwaukee. |
| 1884. <i>Houland, H. C.</i> , Eau Claire. | 1884. <i>Stearns, J. W.</i> (Nor. School),
Whitewater. |
| 1870. <i>Hoyt, J. W.</i> (?) | 1884. <i>Stewart, I. N.</i> , Appleton. |
| 1884. <i>Nye, Charles H.</i> , Platteville. | 1884. <i>Stewart, Sarah A.</i> , Milwaukee. |
| 1884. <i>Parker, Warren D.</i> , River Falls. | 1884. <i>Taylor, Henry J.</i> , Black Earth. |
| 1884. <i>Parkinson, John B.</i> (University),
Madison. | 1884. <i>Thayer, J. B.</i> , River Falls. |
| 1884. <i>Rusk, Hon. J. M.</i> (Governor),
Madison. | 1884. <i>Twining, N. C.</i> , Monroe. |
| | 1884. <i>Willis, Wm. A.</i> , Baraboo (?). |
| | 1884. <i>Whitford, Wm. C.</i> (Pres. Col-
lege), Milton. |

PERPETUAL MEMBERSHIPS.

BOARDS OF EDUCATION IN WISCONSIN.

- | | |
|--|---|
| 1884. Board of Education—City of Milwaukee. | <i>Supt. W. E. Anderson</i> , Representa-
tive for 1884. |
| 1884. Board of Education—City of Janesville. | <i>Supt. R. W. Burton</i> , Representa-
tive for 1884. |
| 1884. Board of Education—City of Oshkosh. | <i>Rufus H. Halsey</i> , Representative for
1884. |
| 1884. Board of Education—City of La Crosse. | <i>Supt. Albert Hardy</i> , Representa-
tive for 1884. |
| 1884. Board of Education—City of Beloit. | <i>Supt. Fayette Royce</i> , Representative for
1884. |
| 1884. Board of Education—City of Watertown. | <i>Chas. F. Viebahn</i> , Representative
for 1884. |

INSTITUTIONS AND SOCIETIES IN WISCONSIN.

- | | |
|--|--|
| 1884. Alumni Association of City Normal School of Milwaukee. | <i>Wm. J. Desmond</i> ,
Representative for 1884. |
| 1884. Athenæum Literary Society, State Normal School, Platteville. | <i>Clara Grindell</i> ,
Representative for 1884. |
| 1884. Board of Regents of State Normal Schools of Wisconsin. | <i>Rev. G. E. Gor-
don</i> , Milwaukee, Representative for 1884. |
| 1884. Milwaukee County Teachers' Association. | <i>Lewis Funk</i> , Bay View, Repre-
sentative for 1884. |
| 1884. Milwaukee Spencerian Business College. | <i>Robert Spencer</i> , Milwaukee, Repre-
sentative for 1884. |
| 1884. Principals' Association of Milwaukee. | <i>Chas. E. Spinney</i> , Representative for
1884. |
| 1884. Intermediate and Upper Sections, Milwaukee Teachers' Corps. | — — — — —,
Representative for 1884. |
| 1884. Primary Section, Milwaukee Teachers' Corps. | <i>Charlotte Bergnall</i> , Repre-
sentative for 1884. |
| 1884. Philadelphian Society, State Normal School, Platteville. | <i>C. G. Woolcock</i> ,
Representative for 1884. |
| 1884. Public School Teachers of Janesville. | <i>Miss De Etta Howard</i> , Representa-
tive for 1884. |
| 1884. State Normal School, Platteville. | <i>Duncan McGregor</i> , Representative for 1884. |
| 1884. Wisconsin Principals' Association. | <i>W. H. Beach</i> , Madison, Representative for
1884. |
| 1884. Wisconsin Teachers' Association. | <i>Hon. W. H. Chandler</i> , Madison, Represen-
tative for 1884. |
| 1884. Wisconsin County Superintendents' Association. | <i>Henry J. Taylor</i> , Black
Earth, Representative for 1884. |
| 1884. Wisconsin County Superintendents' Association. | <i>James T. Lum</i> , Ironton,
Representative for 1884. |

ANNUAL MEMBERSHIPS

FOR THE YEAR ENDING JULY 1, 1885.

ALABAMA.

Armstrong, H. Clay, Montgomery.
Caller, Miss M. A., A. C. F. College,
Tuskegee.
Frazer, Robert, Marion.
Griggs, Lelia V., Tuskegee.

Rencher, Claude B., Morganville.
Rishel, E. H., Selma.
Ryals, Jr., James G., Jacksonville.
Trimble, Prof. A. F., La Fayette.
Washington, B. T., Tuskegee.

ALASKA TERRITORY.

Jackson, Rev. Sheldon, Sitka.

ARKANSAS.

Brooke, Ida J., 920 W. 5th St., Little
Rock.
Clarke, Isaac A., Berryville.
Cohn, Hattie, Little Rock.
Cully, D. Texarkana.
Cunningham, Kate, Little Rock.
Geisreiter, S., Pine Bluff.
Hayes, O. V., Camden.
Hicks, James T., Hope.
Jordan, J., Pine Bluff.
Littlepage, John C., Little Rock.
Masely, C. H., Pine Bluff.

Parhan, R. H., Little Rock.
Sampson, C. L., Washington.
Senter, Miss S. D., Hope.
Sterling, Mrs. B. B., Little Rock.
Swain, Mrs. Belle, Little Rock.
Taylor, Miss Clide, Hope.
Thompson, Monte, Hope.
Trimble, D. L., Pine Bluff.
Trimble, Mrs. D. L., Pine Bluff.
Watt, Miss M. K., Prescott.
Weaver, Mary A., Little Rock.

CALIFORNIA.

Dunn, Harriet E., State Nor. School,
Los Angeles.
Dye, Minnie E., Santa Rosa.
Marwedel, Emma, 1810 Sacramento St.,
San Francisco.

Snyder, Libbie M., cor. Date and
Chavez St., Los Angeles.
Wheelock, Dorcas, Santa Barbara.

COLORADO.

Allan, Sara A., Fort Collins.
Baker, J. H., Denver.
Beggs, Robert H., Denver.
Hover, H. M., 16th and Curtis Sts.,
Denver.
Kendall, Mrs. E. R., Loveland.
Knapp, W. E., 669 Arapahoe St., Den-
ver.

Manley, Fanny, Georgetown.
McArthur, Mary, Georgetown.
Norton, H. B., San José.
Reed, Emma C., Denver.
Wegener, H. F., Denver.
Wegener, Mrs. H. F., Denver.

CONNECTICUT.

Barrows, Miss H. F., Hartford.
 Beach, Miss S. A., Hartford.
 Bishop, Prof. N. L., Norwich.
 Bradley, Miss C. J., New Haven.
 Brocklesby, John H., Rockford.
 Butterfield, C. S., Norwich.
 Butterfield, J. A., Norwich.
 Butterfield, Mrs. J. A., Norwich.
 Cairns, Miss S. H., Waterbury.
 Camp, David N., New Britain.
 Clark, L. B., Hartford.
 Clark, Mrs. S., Hartford.
 Dutton, S. T., Supt. Schools, New Haven.
 Fitch, Mrs. L. A., Montowese.
 Fox, Geo. L., 7 College St., New Haven.
 Gillespy, Edith, Greenwich.
 Gillespy, Estelle, Greenwich.
 Graves, J. A., 28 Charter Oak Place, Hartford.
 Hall, Miss E. P. New Haven.
 Humes, Ellen E., Hartford.

Hyde, Mrs. Anna C., 35 Dwight St., New Haven.
 Ingersoll, Miss M. A., Waterbury.
 Jepson, B., New Haven.
 Kirby, Miss L. C., New Haven.
 Linsley, E. L., New Haven.
 Linsley, Mrs. Grace M., North Haven.
 Miller, Miss I. C., Taftville.
 Morse, E. G., Box 793, Hartford.
 Osgood, Mrs. H. W., New Britain.
 Pease, Miss H. E., Hartford.
 Peck, Luliet E., 104 York St., New Haven.
 Rynn, Alice M., Wallingford.
 Rynn, Katy C., Wallingford.
 Shaw, Geo. E., Putnam.
 Stevens, Dr. J. A., Hartford.
 Stoddard, I. H., New Haven.
 Stoddard, Mrs. I. H., New Haven.
 White, Miss K. E., Waterbury.
 Williams, Job, 690 Asylum Ave., Hartford.
 Young, Miss M. E., Hartford.

DAKOTA.

Beadle, W. H. H., Yankton.
 Blackburn, W. M., Grand Forks.
 Bon, C. D., Lower Brule Agency
 Colton, J. E., Sioux Falls.
 Culver, G. E., Vermillion.
 Doyle, Anna, Flandrau.
 Ericson, E. C., Elk Point.
 Ericson, Mrs. E. C., Elk Point.
 Foley, P. H., Jamestown.
 Fuller, Flora M., Huron.
 Hazard, R. B., Vermillion.
 Healy, E. A., Drayton.

Issenhuth, E. C., Huron.
 Jones, R. W., Columbia.
 Leitch, Jennie, Tetonka.
 Lynch, May L., Yankton.
 Miller, Nona, Canton.
 Pinney, Addie B., Fargo.
 Richards, Lizzie M., Pierre.
 Richardson, Charles S., Madison.
 Sayles, Anna R., Ashton.
 Turner, Carrie, Turner.
 Turner, Eunice, Turner.

DELAWARE.

Spenser, Mattie G., Wilmington.

DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA.

Ames, Delano, 1600 Thirteenth St., N. W., Washington.
 Bartlett, Florence M., 2017 I St., N. W., Washington.
 Bell, Alex. Graham, Scott Circle, Washington.
 Bell, A. Melville, Scott Circle, Washington.
 Bell, Mrs. A. Melville, Scott Circle, Washington.
 Briggs, Martha B., Washington.
 Cook, G. F. T., Washington.
 Crosby, Fanny S., 511 4th St., N. W., Washington.

Davis, Benj. R., Treas. Dep't, Washington.
 Eaton, Gen. John, Bureau Education, Washington.
 Ellis, Anna, Washington.
 Gallaudet, E. M., Kendall Green, Washington.
 Little, Geo. E., Washington.
 Maguire, Frank Z., Washington.
 Mann, Mrs. M. E., 937 K St., Washington.
 McDonald, Mrs. L. P., Washington.
 McLean, Nellie E. L., 1125 13th St., Washington.

Montgomery, H. P., Washington.
 Patton, Rev. Wm. W., Howard University, Washington.
 Paul, E. A., High School, Washington.
 Pollock, Mrs. Louise, Washington.
 Presbrey, O. F., Washington.
 Presbrey, Mrs. S. A., Washington.
 Richards, Dr. C. S., Howard University, Washington.

Schreiner, Mary K., 1624 Mass. Ave., Washington.
 Shadd, Marion B., Washington.
 Shields, Anna P., 827 14th St., N. W., Washington.
 Shields, Mary S., 827 14th St., N. W., Washington.
 Smith, Lyndon A., Washington.
 Van-de-Sande, Mary F., 924 19th St., N. W., Washington.

FLORIDA.

Cowdon, J. J., St. Augustine.

GEORGIA.

Abbott, Sibyl, Clarke University, Atlanta.
 Burger, A. J., Macon.
 Lathrop, S. E., Macon.
 Mitchell, Flora, Clarke Univ., Atlanta.
 Mooty, A. P., Supt. School, Columbus.

Moore, Ella W., University, Atlanta.
 Orr, Mrs. G. J., Atlanta.
 Orr, Gustavus J., State Supt., Atlanta.
 Salisbury, Albert, Atlanta.
 Sergeant, Nettie C., Atlanta.
 Slaton, W. F., 109 Jones St., Atlanta.

ILLINOIS.

Adams, J. Q., Des Plaines.
 Akers, Lida, 3458 Cottage Grove Ave., Chicago.
 Aldrich, Rachel H., Bloomington.
 Alexander, Mrs. H. W., Joliet.
 Allen, Ella S., Carbondale.
 Anderson, Miss M. A., Springfield.
 Anderson, Marie C., Normal.
 Anderson, Lucy J., Nashville.
 Andrews, May, 251 Winchester Ave., Chicago.
 Applegate, O. H. P., Wabash Ave. and Washington St., Chicago.
 Aurand, J. R., Freeport.
 Austin, Mrs. C. H., Palatine.
 Austin, W. W., Rockton.
 Ayres, Mrs. L. B., 537 W. Jackson St., Chicago.
 Baker, Myra, 907 Seminary St., Rockford.
 Baldwin, Sarah, Joliet.
 Ballengar, A. F., Ridott.
 Ballengar, E. S., Ridott.
 Balliet, T. M., Normal Park.
 Bracroft, Jane, Evanston.
 Barbour, O. F., Rockford.
 Barnard, Alice S., Washington Heights, Cook Co.
 Barrett, Emma, 1718 E. 4th St., Chicago.
 Bathurst, S. B., Ottawa.
 Bartholf, C. S., Springfield.
 Barton, H. J., Normal.
 Barton, Mrs. H. J., Normal.
 Baumgardener, Elizabeth, Springfield.
 Baxter, Emma S., Austin, Cook Co.

Beckman, Mattie, Naperville.
 Belfield, H. H., 5734 Madison St., Chicago.
 Belfield, Mrs. H. H., 5734 Madison St., Chicago.
 Belknap, Franklin, Worth, Cook Co.
 Bellows, Addie, Harvard.
 Benson, Fannie H., Fulton.
 Bevans, Homer, Englewood.
 Blackmar, O., 22 St. John's Place, Chicago.
 Block, L. J., 2406 Wabash Ave., Chicago.
 Boltwood, Henry L., Evanston.
 Bostwick, O. P., Lena.
 Bowman, S. Annette, Andalusia.
 Boyden, Helen W., 864 W. Halsted St., Chicago.
 Boyer, E. R., Lewistown.
 Brady, Wm., Marseilles.
 Bright, O. T., 3028 Prairie Ave., Chicago.
 Brockway, Mrs. L. F., Times Building, Chicago.
 Brown, C. E., 369 Wabash Ave., Chicago.
 Brown, E. E., Belvidere.
 Brown, Jennie, Normal.
 Brown, Mary E., 434 Irving St., Chicago.
 Brydges, W. H., Lockport.
 Buck, Martha, Carbondale.
 Bush, Libbie E., Sterling.
 Bushnell, Lu R., Evanston.
 Button, W. J., 379 Wabash Ave., Chicago.
 Cable, F. S., 109 Wabash Ave., Chicago.
 Caldwell, A. J., Carlinville.

- Carmichael, A. K., Fairbury.
 Carpenter, Mrs. Mary L., 325 E. State St., Rockford.
 Cassidy, Rose, 504 S. First St., Rockford.
 Cheney, Mrs. A. J., Oak Park, Chicago.
 Clafin, A. H., 242 Wabash Ave., Chicago.
 Cleverdon, Kittie, Joliet.
 Colburn, Minnie, Kensington.
 Cole, A. J., Care Business College, Peoria.
 Colton, B. P., Ottawa.
 Colton, Mrs. B. P., Ottawa.
 Coman, Miss N. L., Kankakee.
 Cook, E. H., Winnetka.
 Couse, Mary E., Woodstock.
 Cowan, Mary M., Englewood.
 Cuckow, Mary A., 503 Warren Ave., Chicago.
 Curran, Miss J., 529 W. 12th St., Chicago.
 Currier, Emily C., Oak Park, Chicago.
 Curtis, L. A., Waukegan.
 Curtis, J. L., Dekalb.
 Darling, D. H., Joliet.
 Davis, George W., 8½ 38th St., Chicago.
 De Clark, Geo. W., 5110 Wabash Ave., Chicago.
 Delano, E. C., 59 Aberdeen St., Chicago.
 Dillman, L. M., 224 State St., Chicago.
 Dimock, Mrs. E. M., B'd of Education, Chicago.
 Dodge, Chester C., Oakley School, Chicago.
 Dodge, W. C., Normal Park.
 Dorman, G. W., 186 E. Jackson St., Chicago.
 Dougall, Miss J., 45 Cedar St., Chicago.
 Duer, Lucy B., Monmouth.
 Dupuis, Denise, Savanna.
 Dyckes, Minnie, Lewiston.
 Eddy, Sara Hershey, Hershey Music Hall, Chicago.
 Ellis, John C., 149 Wabash Ave., Chicago.
 Ellis, Mrs. John C., 149 Wabash Ave., Chicago.
 Faber, H. C., Richmond.
 Fallows, S. M., 328 W. Adams St., Chicago.
 Farson, M. E., 134 Warren Ave., Chicago.
 Farson, Miss N. M., 134 Warren Ave., Chicago.
 Farson, Miss R. M., 134 Warren Ave., Chicago.
 Field, Ella V., Joliet.
 Finley, Miss E. C., Carbondale.
 Fisher, H. A., Wheaton.
 Fitch, I. W., 335 Wabash Ave., Chicago.
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Wood, Linnie S., 160 N. Washington
St., Columbus.
Wright, Miss E. C., New Vienna.

Wright, Miss E. E., New Vienna.
Yarnell, M. A., Mt. Vernon.
Zirwas, Charles, Toledo.

OREGON.

Atkinson, Alice, Portland.
Priest, Wm., Medford.

Sabin, Ella C, 135 Jefferson St., Port-
land.

PENNSYLVANIA.

Barr, Samuel A., Reading.
Baker, Mrs. Francis M., Media.
Baker, James W., Media.
Batchellor, Daniel, 1014 Clinton St.,
Philadelphia.
Beale, Albert B., 713 Filbert St., Phila-
delphia.
Beale, Mrs. A. B., 713 Filbert St., Phila-
delphia.
Bolton, Emma, 1634 Sydenham St.,
Philadelphia.
Borden, Chas. N., 248 Chestnut St.,
Philadelphia.
Borden, Edw. P., 248 Chestnut St.,
Philadelphia.
Borden, E. Shirley, 248 Chestnut St.,
Philadelphia.
Borden, Richard P., 248 Chestnut St.,
Philadelphia.
Brown, C. J., 1538 Chestnut St., Phila-
delphia.
Buehrle, A. K., Lancaster.
Burritt, Ruth (Kindergarten), Philadel-
phia.
Cargo, R. M., Mt. Washington, Pitts-
burg.
Cole, Dora J., 941 Lombard St., Phila-
delphia.
Cordery, Miss D. L., 1621 N. Eleventh
St., Philadelphia.
Cordery, Miss S. W., 1621 N. Eleventh
St., Philadelphia.
Cornell, Watson, 1605 N. Tenth St.,
Philadelphia.
Coster, H. H., Scranton.
Coughlin, James M., Kingston.
Crouter, A. L. E., Deaf and Dumb Inst.,
Philadelphia.
Dace, Jennie, 112 Vine St., Harrisburg.
Day, Emma A., Norristown.
Day, Lizzie M., Norristown.
DeHuff, Jacob, Lebanon.
Drake, Miss M. E., 1219 Parish St.,
Philadelphia.
Erben, Mary A., Philadelphia.
Flint, A. P., 930 Market St., Philadel-
phia.
Fouse, L. O., Supt. of Schools, Harris-
burg.

Funklehouser, A. P., Harrisburg.
Gallagher, Amelia, Pottsville.
Gay, Marianna, Germantown.
Geddes, Chas. K., 31 W. Fourth St.,
Williamsport.
Gloninger, Mrs. Julia, Lebanon.
Graham, Eva A., 1406 N. Twenty-Third
St., Philadelphia.
Graham, Mrs. Thomas, 1331 Pine St.,
Philadelphia.
Graham, Thomas, 1331 Pine St., Phila-
delphia.
Harpel, Wm. F., Shamokin.
Heiges, S. B., Shippensburg.
Higbee, E. E., Harrisburg.
Hill, Miss S. E., 1222 Hancock St.,
Philadelphia.
Houck, Henry, Harrisburg.
Jacobs, Miss M. L., Norristown.
James, E. J., Philadelphia.
Jones, H. S., Supt. of Schools, Erie.
Keith, D. S., 1616 Sixth Ave., Altoona.
Lancaster, Martha G., Lancaster.
Landis, L. B., Allentown.
Logan, J. M., Pittsburg.
Logan, W. W., Coltersville.
Low, Abbie, Erie.
Luckey, Geo. J., Hazal and Second
Aves., Pittsburg.
MacAlister, James, Supt. Pub. Schools,
Philadelphia.
MacDuffee, Mary, House of Refuge,
Philadelphia.
McCartney, J. L., Geneva College,
Beaver Falls.
Madole, Sarah, Erie.
Miller, J. C., Carlisle.
Minor, Samuel, Titusville.
Morrison, A. J., 954 Randolph St., Phila-
delphia.
Morrison, Mrs. A. J., 954 Randolph St.,
Philadelphia.
Morrow, John, 16 City Hill, Alleghany.
Patterson, B. F., Pottsville.
Peirce Mrs. C. L., 1415 Walnut St.,
Philadelphia.
Price A. B., Huntingdon.
Schenk, C., 824 Cumberland St., Leb-
anon.

Schenk, Mrs. C., 824 Cumberland St.,
Lebanon.
Schuyler, Dr. J., Bloomsburg.
Schuyler, Prof. W. H., Franklin,
Venango Co.
Sickel, Mrs. J. F. C., 687 N. Fourth St.,
Philadelphia.
Sides, J. H., 1105 N. 41st St., Philadel-
phia.
Smith, Miss A. M., Philadelphia.
Spayd, H. H., Minersville.

Stephens, Dr. Wm., Germantown, Phila-
delphia.
Stern, Mrs. Hattie, 713 Filbert St.,
Philadelphia.
Straddling, J. M., Philadelphia.
Stout, Geo. H., 713 Filbert St., Philadel-
phia.
Strickler, Mrs. Sarah D., Philadelphia.
Sturges, E. B., Scranton.
Wilson, James, 924 Chestnut St., Phila-
delphia.
Wright, Mary, Frankford, Philadelphia.

RHODE ISLAND.

Bartlett, Miss A. F., Providence.
Benedict, S. G., Pawtucket.
Benedict, Mrs. S. G., Pawtucket.
Bevan, A., Providence.
Bevan, Mrs. A., Providence.
Carter, C. C., Providence.
Clark, Miss A. R., Pawtucket.
Crossman, A. J., Providence.
Crossman, F. A., Providence.
Curtis, Miss L. S., East Providence.
Daggett, Miss M. J., Providence.
Delano, Miss R., Pawtucket.
Everett, R. P., Providence.
Gammell, A. M., Providence.
Gerald, Miss A. M., Providence.
Getchell, Miss M. E., Providence.
Gleason, Agnes B., 356 Benefit St.,
Providence.
Hall, J. M., 23 Camp St., Providence.
Hastings, Miss E. M., Providence.
Hazard, Mrs. A. E. J., East Providence.
Hibbard, Mrs. Chas., 61 Sabin St.,
Providence.
Hoyt, D. W., Providence.
Hoyt, Mrs. D. W., Providence.
Ingraham, Miss K. A., Providence.
Kimball, Miss A. P., Providence.
Lathrop, Mrs. H. M., Providence.
Lathrop, Wm. G., Providence.

Lyon, Merrick, Providence.
Merewether, T., 21 Bowen St., Provid-
ence.
Merewether, Mrs. T., 21 Bowen St.,
Providence.
Newhall, Wm. R., Academy, East
Greenwich.
Paine, Mrs. P. C., Pawtucket.
Paine, Miss L. M., Pawtucket.
Pease, A. F., Pawtucket.
Pease, Mrs. A. F., Pawtucket.
Peck, Wm. T., Providence.
Pierce, Miss L. W., Providence.
Rawson, Mrs. M. E., Providence.
Reid, Miss A. A., East Providence.
Rose, E., Providence.
Shaw, Miss E., Providence.
Smith, Lewis B., Nayatt.
Stevens, Miss H. A., Tiverton.
Stockwell, T. B., State Supt., Provid-
ence.
Tarbell, H. S., City Supt. of Schools,
Providence.
Walker, Miss M. A., East Providence.
Webb, J. A., P. O. Box 1065, Provid-
ence.
Webster, Minnie P., 356 Benefit St.,
Providence.
Whitaker, N. B., Providence.

SOUTH CAROLINA.

Clark, A. J., Lancaster.
Counts, E. O., Prosperity.
Coward, A., Columbia.

Dibble, Virgil C., 32 Montague St.,
Charleston.
Payseur, L. C., Lancaster.

TENNESSEE.

Arnell, S. M., Columbia.
Arnell, Miss Maye, Columbia.
Brader, Rev. J., Nashville.

Brader, Miss M. E., Nashville.
Brennan, T. P., Shellyville.
Clark, Carrie, Franklin.

DISBURSEMENTS.

The disbursements on account of the year ending July 1, 1884, were as follows, viz. :

For printing Membership Certificates, and Circulars, for R. R. and Hotel rates—by the Treasurer	\$18 75
Postage, telegrams, express, and stationery by Treasurer	16 12
Printing, postage, etc., for meeting of Superintendents' department	3 00
Printing circulars, programs, etc.,—by the Secretary	25 00
Mailing programs, postage, envelops, etc.,—by the Secretary	9 80
Notices of meeting to the Press, postage, etc.,—by the Secretary	22 22
Special expense of two Readers and one Lecturer	37 50
Publishing 500 copies of the Proceedings for 1883	228 19
Rent of Church and rooms for meetings of the Association	80 00
Lumber and carpenter's work, fitting up tables, etc.	9 13
Total expenses for the year	\$449 71
Paid W. E. Sheldon, balance of cash advanced on account of Vol. for 1882	\$229 97
E. T. Tappan, amount of cash advanced on account of Vol. for 1882	250 00
Eli T. Tappan, balance of the indebtedness of the Association	180 96
Total paid on account of indebtedness incurred prior to July, 1883	660 93
Balance in Treasury July 1, 1884, carried to the account for the succeeding year	5 33
	<u>\$1,115 97</u>

The above accounts have been compared with Treasurer's books, and found an exact transcript of the same; and for all accounts of expenditures vouchers have been presented fully agreeing with statements made by Treasurer.

The committee desire to express their gratification at the excellent system of accounts kept by the Treasurer, which renders the auditing of his accounts a simple matter, and easily comprehended.

J. L. PICKARD,	} Committee
ANDREW J. RICKOFF,	
D. B. HAGAR,	
	of
	Audit.

MADISON, WIS., July 15, 1884.

WEST VIRGINIA.

Brackett, N. C., Harpers' Ferry.
 Butcher, B. L., State Supt., Wheeling.
 Carter, Fanny, Palatine.
 Crago, F. H., Wheeling.
 Crumbacker, Sue E., 15 Ohio St., Wheeling.
 Deane, Miss R. L., Wheeling.
 Gittings, John G., Clarksburg.

John, L. F., Buckhannon.
 McClasky, Olive, Moundsville.
 Mitchell, Walter, Wellsburg.
 Morrison, Mary J., Wheeling.
 Myers, Cora, Moundsville.
 Shields, D. W., Keyser.
 Swift, Mary E., Wheeling.

WISCONSIN.

Abbey, C. D., Wausau.
 Able, Thomas W., Fon-du-Lac.
 Ackerman, J. H., Arcadia.
 Adams, J. N., Ellsworth.
 Adams, Lydia, Racine.
 Allen, Hattie, Prescott.
 Allen, L. Kate, Berlin.
 Allen, Mrs. P. L., Oshkosh.
 Allen, Walter, 662 Hanover St., Milwaukee.
 Allen, Prof. W. F., Madison.
 Allen, Mrs. W. F., Madison.
 Ailing, Mrs. E. J., Fort Atkinson.
 Amery, Fannie, St. Croix Falls.
 Anderson, B. F., Sheboygan Falls.
 Anderson, Mrs. B. F., Sheboygan Falls.
 Andrews, A. D., River Falls.
 Andrews, Geo. N., Ironton.
 Apthorp, Mary, Oshkosh.
 Ashmun, Minnie, Rural.
 Auerswald, E., Marinette.
 Augustine, A. B., 221 6th St., Racine.
 Babcock, Gertrude A., Eau Claire.
 Bacon, Florence, West Salem.
 Bacon, Hattie E., Manitowoc.
 Baetz, Lizzie, Two Rivers.
 Bailey, Emma, Boscobel.
 Bailey, Jennie, Racine.
 Bailey, Ruth, 327 Lake St., Milwaukee.
 Barber, Marion, Fulton.
 Barker, Wm. E., Pepin.
 Barrett, L. H., Bloomington.
 Bateman, Mrs. Helen, 789 Astor St., Milwaukee.
 Beckwith, E. E., Port Washington.
 Beebe, Eleanor, Racine.
 Bender, Lydia M., Oconomowoc.
 Binner, Paul, 1222 Fon-du-Lac Ave., Milwaukee.
 Bird, John P., La Crosse.
 Bivins, Miss M., 718 Galena St., Milwaukee.
 Blackburn, Mary E., Oshkosh.
 Bliss, Fannie P., Eau Claire.
 Bliss, Lizzie A., 833 Main St., Racine.
 Bloss, Aurie E., 414 Jackson St., Oshkosh.
 Bonesteel, Fanny, Grand Ave. House, Milwaukee.
 Boorman, Curtiss A., Tomah

Bostwick, Minnie, Eau Claire.
 Bowker, Miss M. L., Somers.
 Bradford, I. A., Hartford.
 Bradford, Mary, Kenosha.
 Brand, T. H., 348 W. Main St., Madison.
 Brennan, John, Fon-du-Lac.
 Brier, W. J., Plymouth.
 Briggs, L. W., Oshkosh.
 Brigham, Chas. I., 325 Cass St., Milwaukee.
 Broughton, Aaron, Albany, Greene Co.
 Brown, G. W., Madison.
 Brown, Hattie H., Fond-du-Lac.
 Brow, Fred M., 116 E. Gorham St., Madison.
 Buckley, Kate E., Black Hawk.
 Buell, Callie T., Eau Claire.
 Buell, I. M., Beloit.
 Buerki, Emily, Sauk City.
 Burk, Ida, Hudson.
 Burr, A. W., Beloit.
 Burton, A. W., Neillsville.
 Burton, George, Annaton.
 Burton, Mrs. L. D., Geneva Lake.
 Cabisin, Geo. E., Platteville.
 Cable, D. A. (Girls' Industrial School), Milwaukee.
 Cadey, Ella, De Pere, Brown Co.
 Cady, Sarah, Reedsburg.
 Caldwell, Miss C. J., River Falls.
 Campbell, Julia, 251 27th St., Milwaukee.
 Cass, Frances S., East Troy.
 Cassidy, Anna F., Whitewater.
 Caverus, Miss C., Kenosha.
 Chaffee, Ellen B., Burton, Grant Co.
 Chamberlain, J. N., Beloit.
 Chapin, Rev. A. L., Beloit.
 Christie, Eliza J., 820 Union St., Racine.
 Christie, Jessie, 130 10th St., Milwaukee.
 Clapp, Betsey, New Richmond.
 Clapp, Etta, New Richmond.
 Clapp, Mary, New Richmond.
 Clark, Clara T., Milton.
 Clarke, Mrs. L. H., Tomah.
 Clarke, Mrs. J. G. N., 493 Jefferson St., Milwaukee.
 Clay, Leora, 344 Washington St., Milwaukee.
 Cleaver, Emma O., 344 Washington St., Milwaukee.

- Clement, E. W., Beaver Dam.
 Cleveland, J. J., La Crosse.
 Clinton, Emma, Waukesha.
 Clough, W. G., Portage.
 Cochran, Mrs. L. L., Oshkosh.
 Colcord, Fanny C., State Nor. School,
 Oshkosh.
 Coleman, Mary E., First Ave., Cor.
 Becker St., Milwaukee.
 Coleman, Nellie P., Milwaukee.
 Congdon, J. W., La Crosse.
 Conklin, Margaret, Seymour.
 Connell, Sarah A., South Germantown.
 Cook, Mrs. Ada Ray, Whitewater.
 Cook, Kate, Ironton.
 Cook, Martha, Ironton.
 Corbett, Miss F. K., 519 Hanover St.,
 Milwaukee.
 Crandall, Alice, Madison.
 Craw, Alice L., Oshkosh.
 Crawford, J. C., Green Bay.
 Cubb, Lousia, Lancaster.
 Cuddy, Anna, Eau Claire.
 Curtis, Cora M., Rosendale.
 Curtis, Inez, Hebron.
 Cutting, Mrs. Delia, 409 Seventh St.,
 Racine.
 Cutting, Miss Delia, 409 Seventh St.,
 Racine.
 Dame, M. L., 414 Seventh St., Racine.
 Darnall, Lizzie A., Black River Falls.
 Darnall, Rebecca, Black River Falls.
 Davis, Hattie E. A., Omro.
 Davis, Nancy M., Winneconne.
 Davis, Sophie, Winneconne.
 Delaney, A. P., Whitewater.
 Delaney, Mary, Whitewater.
 Deming, H. W., Neillsville.
 Denison, Gertrude, Baraboo.
 Dewey, Miss L. C., De Pere.
 Diedrichson, John A., 802 Grand Ave.,
 Milwaukee.
 Donaldson, N. S., La Crosse.
 Doolittle, M. E., Eau Claire.
 Doolittle, R. E., Eau Claire.
 Doty, Elrena R., La Crosse.
 Doty, Minnie L., La Crosse.
 Drury, Harriet D., Fond-du-Lac.
 Dudgeon, R. B., Hudson.
 Dwelley, Mrs. E. I., Hudson.
 Dyne, Maria, Columbus.
 Dyne, Sarah A., Columbus.
 Eastman, Laura, Berlin.
 Eastman, Maggie, Platteville.
 Emerson, Jennie, 930 Superior St.,
 Racine.
 Evans, Eliza E., 940 Park Ave., Racine.
 Evans, J. H., Platteville.
 Evans, Kate A., 940 Park Ave., Racine.
 Everest, Kate A., La Crosse.
 Falge, Louis, Manitowoc.
 Fairchild, A. M., 1303 State St., Racine.
 Farnsworth, Ada E., Oakdale.
 Fisk, Jr., J. P., Beloit College, Beloit.
 Fisk, Miss S. E., Darien.
 FitzGibbons, Eliza, Waunakee.
 Flanders, Mary, Platteville.
 Flynn, Hannah, Durham.
 Foley, Kate, Oconto.
 Ford, Lizzie S., 374 Pierce St., Milwau-
 kee.
 Foote, Lucy E., River Falls.
 Foote, Mary L., Sparta.
 Fowler, C. E., New Lisbon.
 Fox, C. M., Muscoda.
 Frankenburg, D. B., 115 W. Gilman
 St., Madison.
 Frankenburg, Mrs. D. B., 115 W.
 Gilman St., Madison.
 Frank, Noma, Muscoda.
 Fraser, Annabel, Durand.
 Frawley, M. S., Eau Claire.
 Freeman, Prof. F. C., Madison.
 Friedel, Charles, Necedah.
 Gardner, Mrs. B. A., Platteville.
 Gardner, D. E., Platteville.
 Gaffron, Otto., Plymouth.
 George, Ella, Kenosha.
 Gettle, Emma V., Cadiz.
 Gill, Flora, 355 Pearl St., Oshkosh.
 Gillett, Anna E., Kenosha,
 Gillett, G., Kenosha.
 Gillispee, Mary, Waukesha.
 Gittings, W. G., Racine.
 Gleason, Nellie R., Westborough.
 Goldberg, Etta, Manitowoc.
 Goodill, Mary, Stockbridge.
 Gooding, Lizzie L., Wausau.
 Goodrich, Jennie M., Durand.
 Goodrich, Mary, Oconto.
 Goodsell, E. B., Highland.
 Gould, J. H., Stoughton.
 Graham, Hattie E., 418 Marshall St.,
 Milwaukee.
 Graham, Ruth A., Baraboo.
 Gray, Alice, 904 Winchester St., Milwau-
 kee.
 Gray, Bessie, 904 Winchester St., Mil-
 waukee.
 Greene, Annie M., Spring Prairie.
 Gregor, Fanny, Kewanee.
 Greibe, Henry, Franklin.
 Grindell, Lillie, Platteville.
 Griswold, Anna M., Horicon.
 Gross, Sophie, Merrimack.
 Grotophorst, M. S., Black Hawk.
 Grubb, Geo. D., Elroy.
 Guile, Della S., 219 Grove St., Milwau-
 kee.
 Gunn, Anna, Eau Claire.
 Haber, J. P., Ripon.
 Hall, J. C., Unity.
 Hannahs, Etta, Kenosha.
 Hannahs, Julia, Kenosha.
 Hanson, Carrie S., Oshkosh.
 Hanson, Richard, 17 Fairchild St., Madi-
 son.
 Harper, Maud, Eau Claire.

- Harrington, John, Bear Creek.
 Harkell, Alfaretta, Oshkosh.
 Harney, Mrs. O. M., Oshkosh.
 Haskins, H. F., Prairie-du-Sac.
 Haskins, Mrs. H. F., Prairie-du-Sac.
 Hastings, Helen, Kenosha.
 Hastings, Jennie, Kenosha.
 Haughton, William, Viroqua.
 Havens, Sarah B., 703 Cass St., Milwaukee.
 Hayes, Dora, Spring Green.
 Haylett, E. G., Menasha.
 Hazard, Martha E., Beloit.
 Heinman, Frances, 280 Tenth St., Milwaukee.
 Hempel, Alma, Whitewater.
 Henry, Adele, Jefferson.
 Henry, Miss S. A., Fond-du-Lac.
 Herring, C. E., Poynette.
 Hesse, Henry D., 253 Third St., Milwaukee.
 Hewitt, P. H., Manitowoc.
 Hibbard, D. O., Racine.
 Hickey, Mamie, 768 Michigan St., Milwaukee.
 Hill, Edith C., Rosendale.
 Hirsch, J. T., Milwaukee.
 Hitchcock, Ida, New Richmond.
 Hodge, W. J., Ripon.
 Holbrook, Ella, Arkansaw.
 Holcombe, Alice, Menasha.
 Holcomb, Eva, Berlin.
 Holcomb, Mary, Sheboygan Falls.
 Holden, Josephine, Hudson.
 Hooper, S. A., 5th Dist. School, Milwaukee.
 Hosford, Margaret, Robert's Station, St. Croix Co.
 Howard, F. C., Waupun.
 Howard, Mrs. F. C., Waupun.
 Howitt, J., Waukeshas.
 Hoyt, L. W., 221 Monona Ave., Madison.
 Hoyt, Ida M., Hudson.
 Hoyt, J. E., Lodi.
 Hubbard, Zilphe S., River Falls.
 Hughes, Mrs. Maggie, Antigo.
 Hughes, H. S., Waukeshas.
 Hughes, W. J., West Salem.
 Hulburt, L. S., Monroe.
 Huley, A. B., Menomonee.
 Hume, Anna, Oconto.
 Hunter, Mary, Ripon.
 Huntington, Hattie A., Baraboo.
 Hutchins, C. A., Fond-du-Lac.
 Hutton, A. J., Platteville.
 Hyde, C. S., Lancaster.
 Ingals, J. G., Menomonee.
 Irwin, Lu E., Brandon.
 Jackson, F. D., Janesville.
 James, Clara C., 98 High St., Oshkosh.
 James, Elinor, Trempealeau.
 James, J. A., Hazel Green.
 James, Sarah, 98 High St., Oshkosh.
 Johnson, Laura, Black River Falls.
 Johnson, Lucy R., Black River Falls.
 Johnson, Tillie, Berlin.
 Jones, Eliza A., 817 Campbell St., Racine.
 Jones, Miss E. C., River Falls.
 Jones, Jennie H., 531 Jackson St., Milwaukee.
 Jones, Jenny L., Eau Claire.
 Jones, Minnie, Berlin.
 Jones, W. F., Rockland.
 Jones, William, Clinton.
 Jones, W. W., Georgetown.
 Jones, Susie, Racine.
 Jordan, W. P., Berlin.
 Kahn, Bertha, 467 Fourth St., Milwaukee.
 Kelleher, Maggie G., De Pere.
 Kelleher, Minnie H., De Pere.
 Kellogg, D. M., Whitewater.
 Kellogg, Gertrude A., Janesville.
 Kelly, J. T., St. Francis.
 Kern, Addie M., Oconomowoc.
 Kerr, Alexander, 140 Langdon St., Madison.
 Keyes, C. H., River Falls.
 Kimball, Hattie, Berlin.
 Kimball, W. W., Omro.
 King, Prof. F. H., River Falls.
 Koener, Adela, 366 11th St., Milwaukee.
 Kopplin, Otto, Fall Creek.
 Kriesel, C. A., Oakland.
 Ladd, Miss Bay, West Salem.
 Ladd, Mary H., German Academy, Milwaukee.
 Lakin, May M., 201 Ninth St., Milwaukee.
 Lamb, Miss L., Melrose.
 Lan, Charles, Cedarburg.
 Lansing, L. L., Beloit.
 Lansing, Mrs. L. L., Beloit.
 Lantry, Mary, Manitowoc.
 Larson, Marie C., Oakdale.
 Leith, John A., Appleton.
 Leland, Lily, Whitewater.
 Lewis, C. S., Cottage Grove.
 Lewis, Mrs. E., 909 College Ave., Racine.
 Lewis, Irene, Eau Claire.
 Lewis, Mary, 909 College Ave., Racine.
 Lewis, Mrs. Xury, Neillsville.
 Lily, Catherine H., Whitewater.
 Linfield, G. F., Beaver Dam.
 Little, Mrs. Sarah C., Janesville.
 Livingston, J. W., Dodgeville.
 Luebke, Emma, Milwaukee.
 Lugg, Mary L., 526 Astor St., Milwaukee.
 Lynch, Ed., Grand Rapids.
 Lynch, P. A., 212 Biddle St., Milwaukee.
 Main, Julia B., Platteville.
 Majee, Julia A., Oconto.
 Maloney, Mary A., Osman, Manitowoc Co.

- Mapel, J. J., High School, Milwaukee.
 Marble, Nettie, Oshkosh.
 March, Orra L., Clemansville.
 Marsh, C. O., Antigo.
 Martin, H. C., Darlington.
 Martin, Mrs. H. C., Darlington.
 Martin, Mag. Sheboygan Falls.
 Martin, R. W., Oshkosh.
 Marvin, Addie, Randolph.
 Massee, Clara, Knapp.
 Matthes, F., Hustisford.
 Mathews, Clara, Burlington.
 Maxon, Henry D., Whitewater.
 Menges, John, Madison.
 Merk, Ida, Sauk City.
 Merrifield, Edith, Milton Junction.
 Merrifield, Miss H. A., Milton Junction.
 Merrill, Mrs. W., 232 Biddle St., Milwaukee.
 Meyer, Louise C., 502 Prairie St., Milwaukee.
 Middlecamp, William, De Pere.
 Miller, Cora, Elo, Winnebago Co.
 Miller, Frank, Oshkosh.
 Minehan, Nellie, Bay View.
 Mink, Carrie, Burton, Grant Co.
 Miner, Mrs. C. A., Cherry St. School, Fond-du-Lac.
 Mitchell, Nellie L., Neenah.
 Monat, Miss M. C., Janesville.
 Moody, J. L., Ellsworth.
 Moore, Clara, Lancaster.
 Morehouse, Louisa, 770 Jackson St., Milwaukee.
 Morrison, Sarah, 1108 Park Ave., Racine.
 Morse, Clara, 36 Merritt St., Oshkosh.
 Morse, E. C., Arkdale.
 Morton, G. M., Richland Centre.
 Muck, Katy A., Jefferson.
 Muesse, Ollie, Lancaster.
 Munroe, Christia, Union Grove.
 Murphy, James P., Platteville.
 McArthur, Edie, Lake Mills.
 McConahy, Mary, Durham.
 McCutchan, Mary L., 571 Seventh Ave., Milwaukee.
 McCutchin, Nora E., Sturgeon Bay.
 McConnell, J. E., West Salem.
 McEachron, Julia, 39 Ninth St., Racine.
 McFadden, Anna C., Fond-du-Lac.
 McGinnis, Lucinda, 209 Mifflin St., E. Madison.
 McGovern, Mary, Madison.
 McGrath, M., 304 Van Buren St., Milwaukee.
 McGregor, J. K., 524 Lake St., Eau Claire.
 McGuire, Maggie, Baraboo.
 McKee, Clara, Delavan.
 McKenzie, Flora F., Hillsborough.
 McLaughlin, Ed., Fond-du-Lac.
 McMahan, Martin, Meeme.
 McMahan, M., Durand.
 McMahan, Rose, Doylestown.
 McMurdo, Mellie, Hortonville.
 McMynn, J. G., 942 Wisconsin St., Racine.
 McNamara, D. W., Hartford.
 McNeal, Sue P., Eau Claire.
 Nageler, John G., New Holstein.
 Nagle, John, Manitowoc.
 Nash, Jennie, Hudson.
 Neff, Angie, Neillsville.
 Nelson, Mary A., Manitowoc.
 Niquette, Lucy, Two Rivers.
 North, Alex. F., Pewaukee.
 Nye, Ella A., Baraboo.
 Nye, Zella M., Baraboo.
 Parker, Mrs. Louise, River Falls.
 Patterson, Miss H., Eau Claire.
 Patterson, Ida, Fox River.
 Patterson, Sarah, Fox River.
 Patterson, V., Fox River.
 Patzer, C. E., Manitowoc.
 Patzer, Mrs. C. E., Manitowoc.
 Peaslee, Anna J., Omro.
 Perry, Mrs. E., Grand Ave. House, Milwaukee.
 Peterson, J. P., Luck, Polk Co.
 Phillips, C. J., Wyocena.
 Phillips, W. B., Boscobel.
 Pickards, Cynthia, Neenah.
 Pickering, C. R., Basswood.
 Pierce, Rose, Racine.
 Pinch, Mary, West Rosendale.
 Pinning, Miss E. M., 84 Elm St., Oshkosh.
 Pollock, W. J., Hebron.
 Porter, Anna A., Madison.
 Pray, Prof. T. B., Whitewater.
 Ramsay, Margaret, Nicolette.
 Rankin, W. L., Waukesha.
 Reed, J. H., Lancaster.
 Reik, Lydia M., 609 Washington St., Milwaukee.
 Rielly, T. W., Fond-du-Lac.
 Remington, Maud, Baraboo.
 Rhea, A. O., West Salem.
 Riedel, Cathinka, Lancaster.
 Richardson, Mrs. E. B., Janesville.
 Richards, Rev. C. H., Madison.
 Roberts, L. D., Shawano.
 Robins, Mamie E., Oshkosh.
 Rodee, Alice, 314 Sycamore St., Milwaukee.
 Rogers, Miss C., Whitewater.
 Rogers, G. A., Oconomowoc.
 Roggenban, Maggie S., 420 Sixth St., Racine.
 Roll, Richard, Hustisford.
 Rosenblatt, Mrs. H., Beloit.
 Rowb, Sadie, Prairie-du-Chien.
 Royce, Almira A., Oshkosh.
 Russell, Ella J., Waupun.
 Russell, Hattie J., Omro.
 Salisbury, Celia, Elkhorn.
 Salisbury, Emma, Whitewater.
 Salisbury, Harriet, Whitewater.

OFFICERS AND MEMBERS OF LOCAL COMMITTEES AT MADISON.

ON ENTERTAINMENT, HOTELS, LUNCHEONS, AND LODGINGS.

Hon. J. H. Carpenter, *Chairman*, Madison; Elisha Burdick, Esq.; Maj. Charles G. Mayers.

ON NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL EXHIBITION.

Hon. W. H. Chandler, *Chairman*; Capt. W. H. Bennett; W. A. Tracy, Esq.

ON FINANCE.

S. L. Sheldon, Esq., *Chairman*; L. S. Hanks, Esq.; S. Klauber, Esq.; W. Ramsey, Esq.; J. W. Hobbins, Esq.; J. Suhr, Esq.; Hon. J. A. Johnson.

ON HALLS AND PLACES OF MEETING.

Gen. Lucius Fairchild, *Chairman*; A. H. Main, Esq.; J. E. Moseley, Esq.; F. J. Lamb, Esq.; Mrs. J. W. Sterling.

ON INVITATIONS AND RECEPTION.

Hon. Robert Graham, *Chairman*; Pres. John Bascom, D. D., LL. D.; Supt. S. Shaw; Gen. E. E. Bryant; Mrs. John Bascom; Mrs. S. L. Sheldon; Mrs. Willett S. Main; Gen. David Atwood; Prof. F. A. Parker, Ph. D.

The following programs have been prepared for this meeting, and are submitted for the approval of the Directors.

General Program of the National Educational Association.

TOPICS AND SPEAKERS.

- I. THE PRESIDENT'S ANNUAL ADDRESS.
- II. CITIZENSHIP AND EDUCATION. Hon. J. L. M. Curry, LL. D., Virginia; Gen. John Eaton, LL. D., Washington.
- III. EDUCATION IN THE NORTHWEST. Col. William F. Vilas, Madison.
- IV. EDUCATION AT THE SOUTH. Pres. A. G. Haygood, LL. D., Georgia; Rev. A. D. Mayo, Massachusetts; Supt. Albert Salisbury, Georgia; Prof. William H. Crogman, Georgia; Prof. R. H. Jesse, Louisiana; Major R. Bingham, North Carolina; Prof. B. T. Washington, Alabama, and others.

- V. NEEDS IN AMERICAN EDUCATION. Mrs. Eva D. Kellogg, Massachusetts.
- VI. THE CONSTANT IN EDUCATION. Supt. B. A. Hinsdale, Cleveland, Ohio.
- VII. WOMAN'S WORK IN EDUCATION. Mrs. Rebecca D. Rickoff, New York; Miss Frances E. Willard, Illinois; Mrs. May Wright Sewall, Indiana; Mrs. Sarah B. Cooper, California; Miss Alice E. Freeman, Massachusetts; Miss Clara Conway, Tennessee; Miss Ella W. Somerville, Washington, and others.
- VIII. EDUCATION OF THE INDIAN. Gen. S. C. Armstrong, Virginia; Capt. R. H. Pratt, Pennsylvania; Rev. Albert Riggs, Dakota; Hon. J. W. Haworth, U. S. Superintendent of Indian Education, Washington. Educated and uneducated Indians will be present as an object lesson. Hon. Henry M. Teller, Secretary of the Bureau of the Interior, has been invited to be present, and has given the officers hope that he will be, and take part in the discussion.
- IX. DEAF-MUTE EDUCATION AS RELATED TO PUBLIC EDUCATION. Prof. Alexander Graham Bell, Washington. The friends of deaf-mute instruction in the United States are invited to be present and take part in the discussion. Those especially interested will have the opportunity offered to hold other meetings, independent of the Association, if they desire.
- X. PRINCIPLES AND METHODS OF A SYSTEM OF ELEMENTARY EDUCATION. G. Stanley Hall, Ph. D., Maryland, and Hon John W. Dickinson, Massachusetts. One session of the Association will be devoted to this important subject, and it is expected that the leaders in thought and work in this department will have a large opportunity to express their views. William T. Harris LL. D., Massachusetts; Col. F. W. Parker, Illinois; Hon. J. H. Greenwood, Missouri; Hon. O. V. Tousley, Minnesota; Supt. Geo. Howland, Illinois, and others, have been invited to take part in the discussion.
- XI. THE UTAH PROBLEM AS RELATED TO NATIONAL EDUCATION. J. M. Coyner, A. M., Salt Lake City, Utah.
- XII. THE NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION will close with a Mass Meeting in the Park of the Capitol, on Friday evening. Addresses may be expected from Hon. J. M. Rusk, Governor of Wisconsin; Ex-Gov. Hon. Lucius Fairchild, and other distinguished representatives of the several States and of Foreign Governments.

DEPARTMENT PROGRAMS.

ELEMENTARY DEPARTMENT.

F. LOUIS SOLDAN *President.*

- I. ADDRESS BY THE PRESIDENT OF THE DEPARTMENT.
- II. LANGUAGE LESSONS. Orville T. Bright, Principal Douglas School, Chicago, Illinois.
- III. FORM, COLOR, AND DESIGN. Miss Hattie N. Morris, Principal Training School, Brooklyn, New York.
- IV. METHOD IN MUSIC. Prof. H. E. Holt, Boston, Mass.

NORMAL DEPARTMENT.

E. C. HEWETT. *President.*

WEDNESDAY, P. M.

- I. OPENING ADDRESS, APPOINTMENT OF COMMITTEES, ETC.
- II. "THE NECESSITY FOR NORMAL SCHOOLS," by Dr. Thomas Hunter, President of the Normal College, New York City. *Discussion* led by J. Baldwin, A. M., President of "Sam Houston" Normal School, Huntsville, Texas.
- III. "THE GENERAL BEARING OF PSYCHOLOGY ON THE ART OF TEACHING," by Prof. W. H. Payne, of the University of Michigan. *Discussion* led by A. G. Boyden, A. M., Principal of State Normal School, Bridgewater, Mass.

FRIDAY, P. M.

- IV. ELECTION OF OFFICERS AND GENERAL BUSINESS.
- V. "PROFESSIONAL ENTHUSIASM," by Prof. Henry B. Norton, Vice-Principal of the State Normal School, San Jose, California. *Discussion* led by Thomas Metcalf, A. M., Training Teacher in the State Normal University, Normal, Illinois. CLOSING EXERCISES.

DEPARTMENT OF HIGHER INSTRUCTION.

J. L. PICKARD, *President*.

- I. ADDRESS BY THE PRESIDENT OF THE DEPARTMENT.
- II. THE PART WHICH LANGUAGE PLAYS IN A LIBERAL EDUCATION.
John Bascom, LL. D., Madison, Wisconsin, President
Knapp, Iowa.
- III. POLITICAL SCIENCE IN OUR COLLEGES. W. W. Folwell, LL. D.,
Minneapolis, Minnesota; Col. William Preston Johnson,
New Orleans, Louisiana.

DEPARTMENT OF SUPERINTENDENCE.

B. L. BUTCHER, *President*.

- I. STATE SUPERVISION OF SCHOOLS. Hon. J. D. Pickett, State
Superintendent of Education, Kentucky.
- II. COUNTY SUPERVISION OF SCHOOLS. J. C. Macpherson, Esq.,
Superintendent of Schools, Wayne Co., Indiana.
- III. CITY AND TOWN SUPERVISION OF SCHOOLS. R. W. Stevenson,
Esq., Superintendent of Schools, Columbus, Ohio.

INDUSTRIAL DEPARTMENT.

C. M. WOODWARD. *President*.

- I. A LAYMAN'S VIEW OF MANUAL TRAINING. Col. Augustus
Jacobson, Chicago.
- II. ADDRESS by Dr. Felix Adler, New York City, "MANUAL
TRAINING AN ELEMENT OF HARMONIOUS CULTURE."
- III. ADDRESS by Prof. John M. Ordway, of Boston, "HAND
WORK IN PUBLIC SCHOOLS."
- IV. A TEACHING EXERCISE IN SHOP WORK. Chas. F. White,
Manual Training School, St. Louis.

DEPARTMENT OF ART EDUCATION.

L. S. THOMPSON. *President*.

- I. ADDRESS BY THE PRESIDENT OF THE DEPARTMENT.
- II. REPORT OF COMMITTEE ON COURSE OF STUDY IN INDUSTRIAL
DRAWING FOR THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS. James MacAlister,
Chairman.

NATIONAL COUNCIL OF EDUCATION.

JULY 10, 11, 12, 14, AND 15.

The Committees of the Council are investigating such important questions as the

"Organization of State School Systems,"
 "School Supervision in Cities,"
 "Requirements of Admission to College,"
 "Preparatory Schools,"
 "Oral Instruction,"
 "Practice Departments in Normal Schools,"

"Manual Training in General Education,"
 "Pedagogics as a Science,"
 "The Limits of Co-Education,"
 "Sanitary Appliances of Public Schools,"
 "School Reports,"
 "Educational Statistics," and
 "Moral Education."

Reports on several of these topics will be considered by the Council, and a summary of the conclusions reached will be reported to the National Educational Association. It is expected that each of the fifteen committees of the Council will hold meetings at Madison, in connection with the meeting of the Council.

ALBERT G. BOYDEN, *Secretary*.

E. E. WHITE, *President*.

THE FROEBEL INSTITUTE OF NORTH AMERICA.

MEETING AT MADISON, July 14-17, 1884.

The Meeting of the Froebel Institute will be held in connection with that of the National Educational Association, and all arrangements for reduction of railroad fares and entertainment at Madison will be made by the Executive Committee of the National Association. The Froebel Institute will be organized one day before the organization of the National Association, thus giving our friends an opportunity to transact the bulk of their business undisturbed. The sessions on the 16th and 17th are so arranged as not to interfere with the general work of the National Association.

JULY 14, Evening Session.—Reports of Officers. Address of President. Appointment of Committees.

JULY 15, Morning Session.—1. Address: To what Extent can the Kindergarten become a Part of the Public School System? Supt. James MacAlister, Philadelphia.

2. Address: What is the Purpose and Scope of the Manual Training suggested by Froebel? Prof. H. H. Straight, Normalville, Ill.

3. Address: What Benefits may be expected from Charity Kindergartens? Pres. John Ogden, Washington.

Afternoon Session.—1. Address: How should Efficient Training-Schools be organized? Miss Sarah A. Stewart, Milwaukee.

2. Address: How can the Friends of Froebel be organized for Efficient Local Work? Hon. John Hitz, Washington.

JULY 16, *Afternoon Session.*—1. Address: The Conflict of the two Ideals. Col. F. W. Parker, Illinois.

JULY 17, *Afternoon Session.*—1. To what Extent should Primary Teachers be Familiar with Kindergarten Methods? Pres. Irwin Shepard, Winona, Minn.

2. Reports of Committees.

3. "Five Minute reports" from all quarters.

W. N. HAILMANN, *President*, LAPORTE, IND.

In order that the proceeds of this meeting might not be drawn upon to any great extent to meet its expenses, the president and other officers have made special efforts to meet them by pledges in advance of the meeting, and by the solicitation of life-memberships. Wisconsin educators pledged \$500 towards the expenses and through the noble and inspiring labors of Hon. W. H. Chandler, ably seconded by the principals of normal and high schools and others in this State, \$1000 have been raised and paid into the Treasury for fifty life-memberships, and by this grand effort, Wisconsin is now the banner State in this department of memberships, an example which may well stimulate the educators of other States to do likewise. In addition, other life-memberships have been made and pledged, to an amount to meet most, if not quite all the probable expenses of this meeting.

In addition to the usual department and general work of the Association, requests have been received from the president of the Froebel Union of North America, from Prof. Alexander Graham Bell, and others interested in Deaf Mute Instruction, and from Prof. L. M. Mason, and others interested in Musical Instruction, to be allowed to hold meetings in Madison, not in conflict with our arrangements. As so many of our members are interested in those departments of instruction I have cheerfully granted those requests, and the Association is invited to enjoy the benefits of their meetings. It is quite possible that one or more of these organizations may ask for admission as departments of this Association, and I am sure that the Directors will give such applications a candid and a friendly hearing.

To accomplish the results manifest in this gathering of at least six thousand educators from all parts of our own, and from foreign lands, I have had the constant and hearty co-operation of every officer and member of the Association, and my gratitude cannot be expressed for the many marks of confidence and fellowship I have received from them. To His Excellency Hon. J. M. Rusk, and all the State officials; to Hon. J. H. Carpenter, chairman of the local committees, and his associates; to

W. H. Stennett, Esq., and the officials of the Chicago and Northwestern Railway; to A. V. H. Carpenter, Esq., and others of the Chicago, Milwaukee and St. Paul Railway; to Charles S. Fee, Esq., and others of the Northern Pacific Railway; to Jas. Stevenson, Esq., and S. M. Cummings, of the Grand Trunk and Central Vermont Railways, and all other railroad officials governing the 75,000 miles of railway made tributary to this meeting; to the editors of the press which has rendered so valuable aid in informing the people, of the Association as a great National Educational organization, and to the people of Madison who have received us so cordially, I feel deeply indebted and grateful.

In the performance of the work intrusted to me, as the Executive of the National Educational Association, I have spared neither time nor strength. In its interests, within the last twelve months I have travelled more than 12,000 miles, being absent from my home and business at least three months of the year. My services have been rendered with a single desire to promote the interests of education, and to upbuild our beloved Association. My personal expenses in travel I wish to contribute to the Association. I present a small bill for clerk hire for a portion of the year. I commit to the Directors of the Association the work which has been wrought earnestly and conscientiously for the good of the cause.

THOMAS W. BICKNELL,

President National Educational Association.

MADISON, Wis., July, 1884.

PRELIMINARY STATEMENT BY THE TREASURER.

NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION — 1884.

It is customary, and is in accordance with the provisions of the constitution of this Association, for the Treasurer to present his accounts "to the Board of Directors, prior to the regular meeting of the Association," at which his term of office expires. Yet it seems to be desirable that a financial statement be made now and published in the volume of Proceedings which is to be sent to the members for 1884. For this reason the following facts, showing the present condition of the treasury, are given:

It is proper to state in this connection, that the several bills for the items embraced in the disbursements were submitted to the Auditing Committee, which was appointed at Madison by the Board of Directors, J. L. Pickard, of Iowa, Andrew J. Rickoff, of New York, D. B. Hagar, of Massachusetts, and approved by them for payment, and that the Treasurer holds vouchers for the same.

RECEIPTS, 1884.

Balance from account for 1883	\$	5	33
Interest from Permanent Fund		12	00
From 61 Life Memberships		1,220	00
From 2719 Annual Memberships		5,438	00
Balance from Funds for National Educational Exposition at Madison		50	94
Total resources			\$6,726 27

DISBURSEMENTS, 1884.

For expenses of "General Managers" in 22 States	\$402	72
Superintendents of R. R. Transportation	348	32
President Bicknell while making arrangements for the meeting	250	00
Printing note heads, circulars, certificates of membership, etc.	250	11
Printing programs, posters, badges, etc., at Madison	210	25
Special Services, Manager of Reports of Meeting for the Associated Press, and Report of Discussions for the Volume	175	00
Special Postmaster, Messengers, Assistants of Treasurer, and Clerical Help	66	00
Postage on letters, circulars, bulletins, express charges, and telegrams	292	37
Special expenses for departments	46	25
Total disbursements to date		\$2,041 02

It may be added that the cost of publishing about 3000 copies of the Proceedings of the Madison meeting, and other necessary expenses during the next two months, will materially reduce the amount now in the treasury.

N. A. CALKINS,

Treasurer National Educational Association.

NEW YORK, Nov. 1, 1884.

NATIONAL COUNCIL OF EDUCATION.

PRESIDENT'S ANNUAL REPORT.

The constitution of the National Council of Education makes it the duty of the President to make "an annual report of its work to the National Educational Association." In accordance with this provision I have the honor to submit the following statement of the work of the Council for the year 1883-84.

The investigations of the Council, which cover nearly the entire field of school education, are assigned to twelve standing committees. The general subject or inquiry assigned to each committee is divided into three to five sub-topics as bases for successive investigations and reports. This arrangement distributes the work of each committee over several years, and its successive reports, being each confined to one topic, are brief and the Council is able to discuss the same in an intelligent and satisfactory manner.

The annual meeting of the Council, held in connection with this meeting of the National Educational Association, opened on Thursday evening, July 10, and closed with an executive or business session on Tuesday afternoon, July 15, the whole number of sessions (half-day or evening) being nine. Thirty-eight of the fifty-one members were present, and five of the honorary members. The interest in the exercises was well sustained.

Reports were submitted by six committees, as follows :

1. Committee on Hygiene in Education, on "Recess, or No Recess," J. L. Pickard, Chairman.
2. Committee on Elementary Education, on "Oral Teaching," J. W. Dickinson, Chairman.
3. Committee on City School Systems, on "Supervision of City Schools," A. J. Rickoff, Chairman; with supplemental report on "The Duties of School Superintendents," by Aaron Gove, a member of the committee.
4. Committee on Pedagogics, on "Pedagogics as a Science," W. T. Harris, Chairman; with report to the committee on "Is Pedagogics a Science?" by F. Louis Soldan.
5. Joint Committee on "Preparation for College," Lemuel Moss, Chairman.
6. Special Committee on "Pedagogical Inquiry," G. Stanley Hall, Chairman; a preliminary report.

These several reports were prepared with unusual care and the discussions were searching and thorough.

At the opening of Friday's session, the Council authorized the President to appoint a reporter of the discussion of each paper, with a view of preserving the more important points for publication. This action was taken after the consideration of the report on "Recess or No Recess," and hence no report of its discussion was made to the Council. The reports of the other discussions were read to the Council for approval, with the exception of the report of the discussion of Dr. Harris's paper on "Pedagogics as a Science," read the last day of the meeting. The report of this discussion was not submitted for approval, but is believed to be substantially correct. These concise reports of the Council discussions will add much to the value of its published proceedings.

It was my purpose to present in this report a succinct statement of the substance of the reports and discussions at this meeting of the Council, but since the Association has just authorized the publishing of the Council proceedings in the volume of Association proceedings, the making of such a summary is unnecessary. The proceedings of the Council will also be published in a separate volume, at the expense of members and for their use.*

It must suffice to say, in conclusion, that the work of the Council increases in importance and value from year to year. The success of its fourth annual meeting is a hopeful promise that it will meet, in the near future, at least, the more moderate anticipations of its founders.

Respectfully submitted.

E. E. WHITE,

President of Council of Education.

MADISON, WIS., July 18, 1884.

*This third volume of Council proceedings will be sent, postpaid, on receipt of 50 cents. Either of the two preceding volumes will be sent at the same price. Address N. E. Publishing Co., 16 Hawley St., Boston, Mass.

THE EDUCATIONAL EXPOSITION AT MADISON.

One of the most important contributions to the work of the National Association at Madison was the educational exhibition which was made in the State Capitol. The first suggestion of the possibility of such an exhibition came to the President on his first visit to Madison, in September, 1883. The two wings of the Capitol extension were then nearly completed, and the Governor and other State authorities offered the new unoccupied space, with such other room as could be spared, for the display of educational material in connection with the meetings of the Association. It seemed to Mr. Bicknell that the unusual facilities offered for the illustration of the visible and material products of our schools and colleges were well adapted for the presentation of a great object lesson which all visitors could appreciate and profit by, and it was decided to add this attraction to others of the usual order, provided it could be done without extra expense to the Association. The plan was readily approved by the executive committee of the Association, and to ensure its complete success, Hon. J. H. Smart, LL. D., President of Purdue University, Indiana, was invited to become the Director of the Exposition. In December, President Smart visited Madison in company with President Bicknell, and after examining the Capitol buildings and the space allotted for the exhibition it was decided to proceed with the completion of plans and the collection of material. At an early day, Director Smart announced the scheme agreed upon and selected his associates in charge of Departments as follows.

NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL EXPOSITION.

DEPARTMENTS.

The Exhibit will be organized into twelve departments, viz. :

1. **MAIN EXHIBITION.** Including work of higher schools, both public and private. This part of the exhibit will be grouped in divisions by States.
2. **DEPARTMENT OF INDUSTRIAL EDUCATION.** H. H. Belfield, Chicago, Ill., *Superintendent*. This department will include the products of all technical schools and manual-training schools. Space will be afforded for showing processes, if exhibitors desire it.

3. **ART DEPARTMENT.** Walter S. Perry, Worcester, Mass., *Superintendent*. This department will include special exhibits of drawings, crayon work, water colors, and all forms of decorative art, to be exhibited by city schools and private schools.
4. **KINDERGARTEN DEPARTMENT.** W. N. Hailmann, Laporte, Ind., *Superintendent*. This department will include all products of public and private Kindergartens. Opportunity will be afforded to a limited number of those who may desire to illustrate methods of Kindergarten instruction. Concessions will be granted in this department to dealers and publishers who wish to display Kindergarten appliances.
5. **EXHIBIT SELECTED FROM THE NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL MUSEUM.** This department will include a most interesting exhibit of school products and appliances gathered from foreign countries, and now forming a part of the National Educational Museum at Washington, D. C.
6. **EXHIBIT OF PEDAGOGIC LITERATURE.** Wm. E. Sheldon, Boston, Mass., *Superintendent*. This exhibit will include bound pedagogical literature, and will exclude all current periodicals.
7. **WARD'S MUSEUM OF MINERALOGY, GEOLOGY, AND ZOOLOGY.** H. A. Ward, Rochester, N. Y., *Superintendent*. This exhibit will be made exclusively by H. A. Ward, of Rochester, N. Y., and will form one of the most interesting features of the exposition.
8. **EXHIBIT OF SCHOOL ARCHITECTURE, INCLUDING VENTILATING AND HEATING APPARATUS.** J. J. Burns, Lancaster, O., *Superintendent*. This department will include all exhibits made by architects, builders of school-houses, and inventors and makers of apparatus for heating and ventilating. Concessions will be granted in this department to manufacturers and dealers.
9. **EXHIBIT OF SCHOOL JOURNALS AND OTHER CURRENT EDUCATIONAL PUBLICATIONS.** William A. Mowry, Providence, R. I., *Superintendent*.
10. **DEPARTMENT OF APPARATUS AND SUPPLIES.** H. R. Sanford, Middletown, N. Y., *Superintendent*. This department will include chemical and physical apparatus, globes, charts, appliances for use in laboratories, etc., both for elementary and higher schools. Concessions will be granted in this department to manufacturers, dealers, and inventors.
11. **DEPARTMENT OF SCHOOL BOOKS.** William A. Mowry, Providence, R. I., *Superintendent*.
12. **DEPARTMENT OF SCHOOL FURNITURE.** J. J. Burns, Lancaster, O., *Superintendent*. DEPARTMENTS 11 AND 12. Concessions will be granted to all publishers, and authors of text-books, and to all manufacturers of school furniture who may wish to display their products.

JAMES H. SMART, *Director*, Lafayette, Ind. E. E. SMITH, *Secretary and Treasurer*.

The Directors and Superintendents labored with great energy and fidelity, and their efforts were promptly and cordially seconded by those who were interested in the general departments in all parts of the country. If space would allow, it would be desirable to give the names of contributors and contributions to this exposition of such unusual interest and value, but we can only give a general statement of the material exhibited, followed by reports of committees on special Departments of the work, and a summary of the exposition as an educational factor, by W. T. Harris, LL. D., of Massachusetts.

REPORT ON THE EXPOSITION OF EDUCATION AT MADISON.

Hon. T. W. Bicknell, President of the National Educational Association:

Sir: The undersigned, appointed by you, general chairman of the committees, to inspect the several departments of the educational exposition at Madison and report on the same to the National Educational Association, begs leave herewith to offer his report.

The reports of the several special committees, appointed respectively to examine and report upon the departments have already been placed in your hands. They are

1. The committee on Industrial and Technical Education.
2. The committee on State Exhibits.
3. The committee on Art.
4. The committee on Special Exhibits.
5. The committee on Kindergartens.

In extent and completeness the exposition at Madison challenged comparison with that of the Educational Exhibit at the Centennial at Philadelphia.

I. *The Industrial and Manual Training Exhibition.* In this department were found exhibits from the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, the University of Wisconsin, Purdue University of Indiana, the St. Louis Manual Training School of Washington University in Missouri, the Illinois Industrial School. Pattern making, wood carving, designs for print patterns, telescope making, fire engines, locomotive and stationary engine making, engraving and casting in bronze, tool making, working drawings for wood and metal work—these and the like were shown to advantage.

II. *The Art Exhibition.* This department, auxiliary to the former, inasmuch as its results are the training of the hand and eye for industrial purposes, was in itself a demonstration of the general attempt of the public schools of the cities in the land to give some industrial training. Twelve cities in ten States and many special institutions located in various parts of the country were represented, and the development of free-hand drawing from its first lessons on to a very advanced grade of perfection was illustrated with great painstaking. The exhibit covered nearly seven thousand feet of space. It told at a glance how widely the system imported from England, and known here at first as the Walter Smith system, had been adopted even by rival teachers and systems.

III. *The Kindergarten Exhibition.* This was a surprise to every one. There were exhibits from eighteen cities in this country, besides one from Japan, another from Geneva, and a third from an Indian orphan

asylum. The arrangement of this exhibit under the direction of Prof. W. N. Hailmann was a masterpiece of skill—solving as it did the difficult problem of disposing of an immense mass of material within a small space, insufficiently lighted, and displaying everything to advantage.

IV. *Special Exhibits.* There was Prof. Henry A. Ward's Museum of Natural Objects from Rochester, N. Y. Besides its display of rare types of specimens from the fields of Mineralogy, Geology, and Zoology, there was a most comprehensive exhibit of the different kinds of rocks that form the crust of the globe. Native ores and fossils in real specimens and in models formed the most attractive part of this display. The exhibit of the school journals and educational publications, the display of optical and physical instruments, the Japanese music charts, the methods of teaching geography, and the exhibit from the Institution for Feeble-minded, will be remembered by all who visited Madison.

V. *The State Exhibits.* There were five States that made full exhibits and many others that made partial ones. Iowa, Wisconsin, Indiana, Minnesota, and Illinois took the lead. Probably fifty different localities contributed to the exhibit for Iowa. It was a model exhibit for a State. The ingenuity shown in preparing the exhibit so as to show at a glance to the public what was the essential feature, seemed to surpass anything attempted in the Philadelphia exposition of education,—this was particularly noticeable in the Minnesota department. Each one of the five States above named was in charge of able exhibitors.

All who visited the Centennial remember the exceptional excellence of the Indiana exhibit under the management of J. H. Smart. It was not too much to expect of the exposition at Madison, directed as it was by the same gentleman and assisted by men of tried ability, that it should present a noteworthy feature of the meeting. Expectations were more than realized. The exhibition rooms were thronged from the very beginning. One cannot calculate the influence of it for good.

At Philadelphia there was a disproportionate presentation of whatever in education tended to monstration. Whatever could make a show was seized upon for the exposition. In one State exhibit a stranger would have supposed that ornithology and taxidermy were extensively taught because so large a portion of its space was filled with cases of stuffed birds. Another State seemed to be devoted to teaching the construction of machinery. Another showed only what it was doing in economic botany, while another seemed to be doing most for map-drawing.

The exposition at Madison was not so one-sided. And yet it must be confessed that the work in which all the schools are engaged in for nine-tenths of the time made very little show and indeed could not make much show for the very reason that it is of such a nature that it cannot be exhibited like the products of the farm and workshop. Education produces

cultured human beings and these cannot be placed on exhibition like grain and cloth. Neither can the methods of education be shown to advantage except in the school-room. Only the physical appliances can be shown. These are the buildings, furniture, apparatus, and books. These appliances do not have so direct a relation to their product as the plow and reaper have to the grain, or the spinning-machine and the loom have to the cloth. But they are valuable instruments after all.

The written work in the shape of examinations seems to be more nearly a test of the work actually done by the pupil. But examination papers bound into volumes are not easily inspected by the visitor. They require too much time if one wishes to make a sound estimate of the relative merits. Nevertheless, if one is sure that the work has been done under strict precautions, he has before him a good basis for forming a correct opinion of the results of the instruction. The hand-writing, spelling, use of language, clearness of definition, accuracy of instruction, breadth of thought, neatness of habits—all these may be judged from the written examination of a pupil if faithfully performed.

Perhaps drawing is the most easily exhibited of all school work. When hung up on frames it is inspected with the greatest facility. Drawing has demonstrated again and again its right to a place in the curriculum of the common school. There seems, however, to be a tendency on the part of its teachers to set forth extravagant claims for it. It should be in their opinion a new species of language and on a par with speech in its oral and written forms. That only one person in a thousand has occasion in his vocation to reduce ideas to drawings and only two in a hundred ever have the slightest occasion to read drawings in the technical sense, does not seem to be taken into full account. As a training of hand and eye drawing may claim a place in all public schools and throughout all grades. One hopes that the universal teaching of drawing in this country will eventually produce designers for our print-works and other manufactories, so that we shall hear no more of the necessity of importing skilled workmen in that department.

The kindergarten has not yet been made a part of the school system except in a few cities. It deserves a place, however. The problem of its economical introduction bars the way to its rapid adoption, in most places. In St. Louis the cost of instruction has been reduced to a lower rate in the kindergarten than in the primary school, and the question of its practicability solved, at least, for that city. The intrinsic merits of its training and the devoted enthusiasm of its advocates are likely to devise methods whereby it may become a part of the primary school system of every town and village.

The best part of its training is not mental so much as it is the cultivation of skill in the use of the hand and the eye and the training into

habits of politeness and a teaching of the conventionalities of life and what may be called morality. For morality begins in the formation of habits of regularity, punctuality, neatness, silence, observance of forms, self-restraint as regards one's own likings, and the preference of what is good for what is selfish. The mathematical training in form and number, given previous to the culture in the arts of reading and writing, is excellent. The child comes from the kindergarten into the primary school with much beneficial training in good habits and strengthened character—ability to occupy itself in its own proper task without interference with others, or direction from the teacher, and, more than all, with a reasoning, inquiring habit of mind. These effects are procured in a good kindergarten without an overstrained cultivation of the intellect and memory such as is wont to be produced in infant schools by giving the child instruction in reading and writing before his mind is mature enough to leave what is symbolic and take up what is purely conventional.

The prominence of the industrial and manual training schools in the Madison Exposition shows that the new departure gets the most representation, whether it forms a large or a small part of the general system. All will rejoice that the matter of fitting for one's vocation in life is to become a matter of schooling rather than of apprenticeship. Intelligent skill will supplant mere "knack." Valuable time will be saved for general studies. Educated workmen from manual training schools will furnish overseers that can teach as well as "boss" their subordinates. It is not necessary as some think to introduce manual training into the common school. What we want is the manual training school side-by-side with the high school as an independent institution for the preparation of youth for their vocation.

Whatever may be the true and ultimate view in regard to these themes, the exposition at Madison has contributed much towards drawing the attention of the country to their solution. The thousands who studied those exhibits went home impressed with the paramount importance of the claims of the new education and with a vivid idea of its appliances.

An exposition of education like that at Madison should be formed at every State capitol in the country. No better means could be devised to bring legislators to a sense of the meaning and significance of the common school. The detailed mention of persons and exhibits is left, as is proper, to the special committees who have reported on the departments.

In conclusion, it only remains to say that the exposition was a grand success in all its departments and formed a very important feature in the greatest educational gathering ever held in this country.

All of which is respectfully submitted.

W. T. HARRIS.

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON THE KINDERGARTEN EXHIBIT.

Hon. T. W. Bicknell, President of the National Educational Association :

Sir : The committee appointed by the National Educational Association to examine the exhibit of kindergarten work at Madison, collected and presented by the Froebel Union, beg leave to present the following brief report :

The exhibition was one of the most extensive and complete which has ever been made of kindergarten work. It was a strikingly rich and characteristic display. An exhibition of this kind can, of course, show but one side of the rich and manifold training which the kindergarten imparts ; it is understood that only the tangible and more external features of the work admit of such representation. But, while the educational processes of the kindergarten can find a limited representation in an exhibition of the gifts and the results of the occupations, and while there are many important features which cannot be embodied in such an exhibit, the material here collected indicated, nevertheless, the great scope of the work of the kindergarten in its entirety !

The work displayed in the exhibition was most comprehensive in character. Beginning with the lowest gifts which are to be placed in the hands of the infant, it extended to specimens of work in form, color, and design, made in the higher grades of schools. It included, also, the work in folding, modelling, etc., of the young kindergarten teachers who are attending a training or normal school. The various systematically arranged gifts of geometrical bodies which are to be placed in the child's hands for the purpose of leading him to knowledge and skill through contemplation and activity, were here represented in their logical continuity. Besides the gifts, which he receives from the teacher, there was also the child's own work in clay and paper ; the forms which he imitates and invents by the use of sticks, wires, peas, etc. ; the colors which he learns to select and combine harmoniously, and the whole almost endless variety of means and devices which the ingenuity of the kindergarten teachers have made subservient to the manual and mental training of little children.

The range of institutions, also, which had placed work on exhibition was a wide one. Kindergartens for white and colored children, from New York to San Francisco ; "transition" schools ; kindergartens for blind children, and public schools of all grades, were here represented. The following is a list of the

TEACHERS AND SCHOOLS THAT PARTICIPATED IN THE EXHIBITION.

1. Public Kindergartens of Milwaukee, Wis.; W. E. Anderson, superintendent.
2. Milwaukee Normal School; Miss Sarah A. Stewart, principal.
3. The Froebel Institute of North America.
4. Kindergarten Department of the State Normal School of Winona, Minn.; Mrs. Eudora Hailmann, director.
5. German and English Academy of Milwaukee, Wis.; Miss Hermine Weissenborn, kindergartener.
6. Miss Emma Marwedel, San Francisco, Cal.
7. State Normal School of Oshkosh, Wis.; Miss Colcord, kindergartener.
8. Miss J. L. Jones, Eau Claire, Wis.
9. Tenth Street Kindergarten, Milwaukee, Wis.; Miss Bonesteel, kindergartener.
10. Connecting Class of Tenth Street Kindergarten, Milwaukee, Wis.; Mrs. K. H. Dousman, kindergartener.
11. Union Relief Works, New York City; Miss Fannie Schwedler, kindergartener.
12. Miss H. M. L. Eggleston, Madison, Wis.
13. Massachusetts School and Perkins Institute for the Blind; M. Anagnos, superintendent.
14. Kentucky Institute for the Blind; Miss Eleanor Beebe, kindergartener; B. B. Huntoon, superintendent.
15. Miss M. J. Gay, Philadelphia, Pa.
16. Mrs. Louisa Pollock, Washington, D. C.
17. Chicago Free Kindergarten Association; Miss M. H. Ross, superintendent.
18. Public Kindergarten, Menomonee, Wis.; Miss Lucy Washington, kindergartener.
19. Dr. E. B. Phelps, East Orange, N. J.
20. Mrs. C. M. N. Alden, Providence, R. I.
21. California Training Class; Mrs. K. S. Wiggin, San Francisco, Cal.
22. Miss Ella Naffy, La Crosse, Wis.
23. Cherokee Orphan Asylum; Mrs. J. W. Riddell, kindergartener.
24. Mrs. C. J. Clarke, Milwaukee, Wis.
25. Public Schools of Laporte, Ind.; W. N. Hailmann, superintendent.
26. Japanese Kindergarten, Tokio, Japan; Dr. L. W. Mason.
27. Madame A. de Portugall, Geneva, Switzerland.
28. Florence Kindergarten, Florence, Mass.

THE COMPREHENSIVE CHARACTER OF THE EXHIBITION

was not its only noteworthy feature; the systematic and logical arrangement of the objects was still more remarkable, and deserves recognition and praise. The various gifts which Froebel invented were placed in such juxtaposition that the arrangement served to explain their use and educational value. The same is true of the exhibition of the specimens of the children's work. Their arrangement suggested the connection subsisting between the simplest forms, which the youngest child contemplates and imitates, and the more and more complicated occupations of advanced grades.

It was manifest everywhere that the objects placed on exhibition were presented, not as results accomplished, or as specimens of work valuable in themselves, but rather as indications of the training which may be given to hand and mind through the appropriate use and the handling of objects, and through directing the attention and activity of children, on the one side, toward form, color, and number, and, on the other, toward

nature and life. The order of the gifts and specimens of work as presented in the exhibit illustrated the plan of kindergarten training, as far as it relates to objects and their handling. It demonstrated how the child is led from the contemplation and perception of form and color to imitation and invention.

While the foregoing embodies the general features which your committee considered, they beg leave to mention, also,

A FEW SPECIAL POINTS

which they deem of importance :

1. The systematic completeness and consistency of the leading exhibits, taking each by itself.
2. The beauty, abundance, and great variety of gifts and work placed on exhibition, and their excellent workmanship. While the geometrical basis of Froebel's plan could be discerned in every exhibit, there was much ingenuity displayed in regard to adaptation and invention. Quite a number of new objects, gifts, and devices were presented.
3. The artistic taste displayed in the work of the children, both in regard to color and form.
4. The attention paid in many exhibits to the hygienic criticism of the last few years in regard to the injurious nature of some colors, and in regard to the effects which some of the discarded occupations had on the eyes.
5. The efforts made in the direction of manual training, which will serve as a preparation for the industrial training of later years.
6. The exhibits of the "transition schools" deserve notice; these institutions are designed to fill the place between the kindergarten and the public school, to make and the transition from the former to the latter.
7. The specimens of "ambidextrous" drawing exhibited show the noteworthy results of attempts to give training to the left hand as well as to the right.
8. The remarkably successful application which the kindergarten idea has found in the training of blind children; it is evident that an accurate idea of form can be developed in these children through the occupations of the kindergarten.
9. In some of the exhibits a whole system of schools, beginning with the kindergarten and extending to the grammar grades, is represented. These well-graded specimens of manual work suggest that certain features of the kindergarten, such as lessons in form, color, and design, learned through practice, may be advantageously embodied in the work of higher grades.

Your committee is of opinion that the exhibition of the kindergarten work during the session of the National Educational Association in Madison was most interesting and instructive to the teachers of the whole country, and that the thanks of the Association are due to those teachers and schools that have sent specimens of their work and participated in the exhibition. Their names have been mentioned before. The thanks of the Association are due especially to Prof. W. N. Hailmann, president of the Froebel Union, and to Mrs. Hailmann, to whose unremitting efforts, talents, and indefatigable zeal the success of the exhibition is largely due.

All of which is respectfully submitted.

F. LOUIS SOLDAN, <i>Chairman</i> , Z. RICHARDS, JOHN B. PEASLEE, J. A. STEARNS,	}	Committee.
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REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON STATE EXHIBITS.

Hon. T. W. Bicknell, President of the National Educational Association :

Sir : The undersigned, appointed at the annual meeting at Madison, July 15, 1884, as a committee on State Exhibits at the Exposition, present the following report :

The committee are under special obligations to Messrs. Henry Sabin, of Clinton, Iowa, John Hull, Carbondale, Ill., and B. M. Reynolds, Fergus Falls, Minn., for valuable aid rendered them.

AARON GOVE, Col.

C. C. ROUNDS, Me.

HERSCHEL R. GASS, Mich.

LEROY D. BROWN, Ohio.

G. J. ORR, Ga.

IOWA.

The Iowa Department of the Exposition was arranged in the Supreme Court Room. It consisted of specimens of work from over 17,000 different pupils under the care of a thousand different teachers.

Every phase of school work was exhibited from the schools in the smaller districts of the State to those of the largest and best graded schools in the cities.

The exhibits showed the ordinary work of the school-room. There was but little selected work, and that from the higher grades.

MANUSCRIPTS.

The manuscript work in bound volumes consisted of examination papers, essays, letters, and language exercises, etc.

The schools from the rural districts exhibited some very creditable volumes. Some of the work bore unmistakable evidence of being the first attempt at anything of the kind, and was all the more acceptable on that account. On the other hand, some of the very best work exhibited was from the district schools.

INDUSTRIAL WORK AND DRAWING.

There was a very fair exhibit of industrial work. One school sent a number of pieces of apparatus manufactured by the pupils. Another contributed specimens of articles which pupils made at their homes. The exhibit was sufficient to show : (a) that under a competent teacher pupils can manufacture for themselves the more simple pieces of apparatus, suf-

ficient to illustrate important truths in Natural Philosophy; and (b) that the teachers of to-day are not wholly engaged in the culture of children's brains, to the neglect of the hand and eye.

The kindergarten work of the Iowa schools came from the prominent cities of the State, but several small places exhibited good work.

A number of schools sent specimens of work in drawing. The most elaborate came from the graded schools in which drawing had constituted part of the regular course of study for several years.

The mechanical drawings, free hand and original designs, were very creditable.

The State Normal School made an excellent exhibit of relief maps, drawings, and manuscript work. The State University exhibit had some very fine work; a collection of land and fresh water shells and a case of bound volumes consisting of theses written and illustrated by the students.

The Institute for the Deaf and Dumb exhibited industrial work; a case of well-made shoes and some fine drawings by the pupils.

The State Department was represented by a large number of bound Reports and Educational journals, and also two very large tablets illustrating the educational development and growth of Iowa. There was also a complete collection of text-books and educational works by Iowa authors.

The exhibit was arranged by cities and counties.

The exhibit was under the charge of Supt. H. Sabin, of Clinton, aided by Prof. T. H. McBride, of the State University, and Principal C. M. Hugby, of West Des Moines.

MINNESOTA.

The Minnesota Educational exhibit was not on a large scale. The committee had no funds with which to meet expenses. St. Paul and Minneapolis and one or two other cities made appropriations to meet the expenses of their own exhibit, but the State made no appropriation.

Work in drawing, illustrative charts, and specimens in penmanship were on exhibition from the schools of St. Paul, B. F. Wright, Superintendent. These charts consisted of pictures from illustrated papers and other sources pasted on manilla paper and mounted on pedestals. They were classified so as to illustrate animal and plant life in the different parts of the world and served also as the basis of language lessons. Examination papers, maps, and drawings were exhibited by the Anoka schools, J. C. Cummings, Superintendent.

Home-made apparatus illustrative of Natural Philosophy and Chemistry was sent from Stillwater. The superintendent was E. V. Curtis.

Winona furnished a good exhibit of drawing and penmanship. Wm. F. Phelps, Superintendent. The Winona Normal School furnished a large

exhibit of kindergarten work, maps, and charts illustrative of Natural History, etc. Irwin Shepard, President.

Specimens of drawing were on exhibition by the Minneapolis schools. O. V. Tousley, Superintendent.

A marked feature was school work from the country schools of Olmsted County. F. L. Cook, Superintendent.

Taken altogether Minnesota's educational exhibit at Madison was excellent throughout.

WISCONSIN.

The exhibit of the Mechanical Department of the Wisconsin State University was under the supervision of Prof. C. I. King and was an attractive display of mechanical work. Among the most important articles were the following: An equatorial telescope, made by H. W. Pennock of the class of '83. It had an eight-inch objective, and the tube was ten feet long, of steel. A large Sweet lathe with many improvements. There were also two turning lathes and one grinding lathe. A self-contained jig-saw was on exhibition, which differed from other machines of the same class in that it can be placed in any location, regardless of connections. Among the smaller tools was a fine collection of straight-edges and squares. There were also specimens of gear-cutting, turning, milling, filing, and pattern work. Numerous designs of mechanical drawings; also a sectional chart of the city of Madison, showing her system of sewerage. Forty samples of chemicals manufactured and put up by students in the pharmaceutical laboratory were also among the exhibits of the University.

MILWAUKEE SCHOOLS.

An inventory of their exhibit gives the following:

- I. Kindergarten work from the 5th, 8th, 10th, 12th, and 14th District Kindergartens, embracing slate work, tablets, weaving, picking, sewing, folding, cutting, etc.
- II. Methods of instruction, prepared by teachers of primary schools.
- III. Eleven bound volumes of manuscripts of examination papers from the first eight grades; also sixteen bound volumes of examination manuscript from the high school. Specimens of drawing from all grades were on exhibition.
- IV. Photographs of Milwaukee school buildings.
- V. Copies of the graded course of study in the schools. Copies of the report of the School Board for the years 1881-1882, and 1882-1883.
- VI. Banner-bearing statistics of the school system.

GERMAN AND ENGLISH ACADEMY, MILWAUKEE.

The exhibit from the German and English Academy consisted of kindergarten work, of landscape work, needlework, etc.

The Tenth street kindergarten school exhibited under the charge of Miss Borsteel numerous devices of hand-work in clay, splint-work on paper, and a number of quite well executed crayon drawings.

The Milwaukee Normal kindergarten exhibit embraced nearly all the articles named above, with a few additional, among which were beautiful samples of work made from tissue paper, also various designs of work on folding cards, wrought in silk, colored and gilt paper, pin punctures, and splints.

The School Association, Kindergarten Department, of Madison, Wis., had also a creditable display of kindergarten work.

This school is under the charge of Miss H. M. S. Eggleston, and the work exhibited showed her efficiency in this kind of instruction. The kindergarten exhibits were varied and attracted much attention.

LA CROSSE PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

From these schools were exhibited a large number of neatly bound volumes of examination papers, representing the work of a number of grades. A collection of nearly two hundred botanical specimens was on exhibition from the La Crosse schools.

TWO RIVERS

had a collection of flowers mounted upon cards.

THE BELOIT

exhibit contained some very creditable examination papers, a fine display of work in object drawing, and two specimens of crayon drawing which showed artistic skill.

FROM THE DEAF AND DUMB INSTITUTION

at Delavan was presented a large number of specimens of studio work in crayon, which showed high attainments in drawing. Samples of work from the cabinet shop, and boots and shoes made by students were also in this exhibit.

THE INSTITUTION FOR THE EDUCATION OF THE BLIND

had a very creditable exhibition.

THE INDUSTRIAL SCHOOL FOR GIRLS

presented quite an extensive exhibit. Thirty-six specimens from the work-rooms of the school were in the collection.

Several counties had samples of school work on exhibition which was done by pupils in the rural districts.

As a whole the Wisconsin department reflected much credit upon the teachers and officers connected with the schools represented, and the people of this State have just reason to be proud of what their commonwealth is doing to advance the educational interests of her youth.

INDIANA.

The exhibit of this State was under the direction of State Superintendent Holcombe, and was admirably organized to show the public school system of the State. The part that the schools of Indiana have taken in previous expositions was shown by diplomas won at Philadelphia in 1876, and at Paris in 1878. The exhibit of State Reports and of various publications bearing upon the history and condition of education in the State was very complete. The systematic manner in which State examinations and Teachers' Institutes are conducted was clearly shown.

THE EXHIBIT OF TOWN AND CITY SCHOOLS

was well arranged, consisting of manuscripts showing the character of work from primary to high school. The cities of Laporte and Lafayette make special displays of art work and kindergarten work. The exhibit of drawings and of specimens of work from fifty pupils in each of the grades from the first to the eighth year, made by the schools of Lafayette, was highly creditable.

THE EXHIBIT OF COUNTRY SCHOOLS

was quite varied, consisting of manuscripts, map drawings, mechanical drawings, and drawings of school-houses in one county (St. Joseph). Interesting collections of specimens of forest woods were shown. No such exhibit can adequately represent the schools of a State, but from such exhibits much may be learned of the organization and working of educational systems; and from the systematic arrangement and operation of the school system of Indiana as here shown, some older States might learn valuable lessons.

ILLINOIS.

The exhibit was originally proposed as a State exhibit, and should be considered with reference to the purposes for which it was proposed: first, and most important, to give direction and uniformity to school work in the

State by the character of work prescribed by the committee having the matter in charge ; and, second, to stimulate to better performance.

The work of the schools was exhibited in three classes : country schools, graded schools, and high schools.

COUNTRY SCHOOLS.

In this class were included all schools except high schools, and graded schools with eight regular grades, and papers were presented in spelling, business forms, letters, arithmetic, common things, geography and history, language, botany, physiology, and zoology.

Thirteen counties were represented in the country school exhibit : viz., Boone, Cook, Ford, Henderson, Knox, La Salle, Marshall, Ogle, Randolph, St. Clair, Sangamon, Whiteside, and Wild. In the country school exhibit maps were shown only from five schools, and drawings from only one. It contained some of the neatest papers in the whole exhibit.

GRADED SCHOOLS.

By *graded schools* in this exhibit was meant a system of schools under one management, embracing the usual eight grades below the high school.

For the first, second, and third years, work was presented in number, spelling, and language ; for the fourth year, in number and language ; for the fifth year, in arithmetic and spelling ; for the sixth year, in geography and language ; for the seventh year, in arithmetic and language ; for the eighth year, in United States history and language.

The specimens of writing and drawing presented in this exhibit deserve commendation.

HIGH SCHOOLS.

In this class the following departments of study were represented :

Languages.—Latin, Greek, German.

Mathematics.—Algebra, Geometry.

Sciences.—Physiology, Astronomy, Natural Philosophy.

English.—English Literature, English Essays, Civil Government, Book-keeping.

Eight high schools exhibited work, viz. : Lake View, Danville, Springfield, Evanston Township, Joliet, Moline, Farmington, and Lanark.

The papers in these exhibits could not in the time at the disposal of the committee be so critically examined as to determine their minute points of excellence, nor their relative worth. Suffice it to say, that so far as such an exhibit can show the character of schools, the showing was highly

creditable, and there can be no doubt but that the main purpose kept in view by the committee having the matter in charge, that of giving direction and uniformity to the school work of the State by these annual exhibits—such direction as inexperience always needs, and a uniformity which need not degenerate into mechanical routine—was admirably served.

The committee of the State Teachers' Association, John Hull, Sarah P. White, Silas Y. Gillan, John P. Yodes, and Rufus M. Hitch, with Hon. Henry Raab, State Superintendent, who have organized this work and prepared the rules for the conduct of so comprehensive a system of examination, have laid under obligation all who were privileged to examine their plan and the results of their labors.

REPORT OF COMMITTEE ON ART AND INDUSTRIAL EDUCATION.

Hon. T. W. Bicknell, President of the National Educational Association :

Sir : Your committee, to whom was assigned the duty of examining and reporting on the exhibits made by the industrial and technological schools, beg leave to offer the following :

The several exhibits in this important department of school work included samples of work done by students in eight schools ; and was intended to illustrate the course of instruction in whole or in part. Though varying greatly in extent and completeness all were interesting and instructive.

The diverse character of the departments represented, not less than the variety of things exhibited, rendered any classification impracticable. On this account your committee have thought best to confine this report to a brief mention of the things exhibited by each school represented.

In general it may be said that all the articles on exhibition, with the exceptions elsewhere mentioned, were the work of students. Many of the exhibits were so admirably arranged as to show the several steps in the course of instruction, each illustrated by its appropriate products.

PURDUE UNIVERSITY, LAFAYETTE, IND.

THE MECHANICAL DEPARTMENT.

This exhibit was made up of mechanical drawing and shop work.

The shop work included :

1. *Bench Work in Wood*.—Examples of planing, sawing, rabbeting, plowing, splicing, mortising, tenoning, dovetailing, framing, and panelling.
2. *Machine Work in Wood*.—Examples of circular sawing, scroll sawing, and turning.
3. *Pattern Work and Moulding*.—Patterns and core boxes for pulleys, gears, columns, and pipe bends; a complete set of patterns for a steam-engine, and for a speed lathe. Machine work made from these patterns were also shown.
4. *Vise Work in Iron*.—Examples of surface chipping, key seating, surface filing, squaring, and fitting, round filing, sawing, scraping, and polishing.
5. *Iron and Steel Forging*.—Examples of turning, planing, fitting, and screw cutting, one steam-engine, and two speed lathes.

All the shop work shown, together with the mechanical drawing, was the result of class work during the freshman and sophomore years of the mechanical course.

The mechanical drawing included working drawings of various machines and tools used in the course of instruction.

THE FINE ART DEPARTMENT.

The exhibit in this department included :

1. Illustrations of architectural ornaments modelled in terra cotta.
2. Wood carving for commercial purposes, in which are used not toy tools, but those used in regular shops. The examples shown consisted of ornamental furniture, vases, tables, brackets, etc.

Not the least interesting part of this exhibit was the work done by two young ladies who had a bench and tools for wood carvings in the room, and were seen busily engaged in their work.

3. Work in decorative design for flat surfaces, such as wall papers, carpets, oil cloths, etc.
4. Illustrations of the course in model and object drawing, shaded in different mediums; also drawings in water and oil colors.

WISCONSIN STATE UNIVERSITY.

DEPARTMENT OF MECHANICAL ENGINEERING.

The exhibit in this department seemed to indicate that the work done by the students was principally of the constructive kind. The exhibit included :

1. A telescope modelled after the larger first-class instruments. It had an eight-inch Clark objective, and was constructed mainly by Henry W. Pennock, of the class of 1883, and was intended for the Boswell Observatory of Doane College, Nebraska.
2. A large engine lathe made for Cornell University, from drawings and plans prepared by Prof. John E. Sweet. This lathe was a fine piece of workmanship, and contained a number of new and peculiar adaptations. There was also a boring and drilling-machine, a box lathe with a screw-cutting device operated by hand, a grinding lathe, a jig saw, and a number of smaller tools.

3. Specimens of work in gear cutting, turning, milling, chipping, filing, pattern-making, and the like.
4. Construction drawings of engines, bridges, roof-trusses, pumps, stone, and brick work.

In connection with this display were two exhibits belonging to other departments, but worthy of special mention. One consisted of forty kinds of chemicals prepared by students in the school of pharmacy; and the other a collection of microscopic slides containing specimens in histology, zoology, and embryology, prepared by Mr. A. J. Ochsner, a student.

THE ILLINOIS INDUSTRIAL UNIVERSITY.

COLLEGE OF ENGINEERING.

In this school the instructive method of teaching mechanic arts is used the first year, and the constructive afterwards. The exhibit here contained :

1. Specimens showing the course followed in learning the use of wood-working tools, in working plane and moulded surfaces, constructing all cabinet-makers' joints, splices, veneering, gluing, inlaying, and wood turning.
2. Illustrative methods in stone work, exemplified in blocks of plaster.
3. Iron and steel forging, making and tempering simple tools.
4. Vise work in filing, fitting, shaping, chipping, etc.
5. Machine work in metal, planing, turning, boring, and screw cutting.
6. Models of bridge and roof trusses made by students.
7. Working drawings of buildings, brick and stone work.
8. Drawing of machines, or portions of machines in both line and washed shading.

THE MASSACHUSETTS INSTITUTE OF TECHNOLOGY, AT BOSTON, MASS.

THE SCHOOL OF MECHANIC ARTS of this institution exhibited :

1. Specimens of iron casting, pattern work, brass and type-metal casting; a complete set of products in learning forging, scraping, filing, chipping, iron turning, making, and tempering steel tools.
2. Working drawings of course in vise work, details of machinery, etc.
3. Specimens of wood-work produced in learning use of wood-working tools.

A beautiful toy brass cannon was shown in connection with this exhibit, but no information could be obtained concerning it.

The Lowell School of Design in the same institution showed a number of designs for wall papers and textile fabrics. An important feature of these collections was that they included sixteen designs made by pupils, and used by manufacturers; also eighty-eight designs prepared in the same way, and shown by specimens of the fabrics themselves.

MANUAL TRAINING SCHOOL, ST. LOUIS.

The exhibit was classified as follows :

1. **DRAWINGS.** (a) Free-hand, Pencil and Charcoal; Shaded Projections of Objects; Outline Projections of Machines; Outline Perspectives of Models.
(b) Instrumental and Brush Work; Pen Exercises; Projections of Machines; Projections of Models; Development of Surfaces; Lettering; Shading; Geometrical Surfaces; Finished Drawings of Engines, etc., from the objects.
2. **WOOD-WORK.** (a) Class Exercises in Joinery; Framing, Fitting, Gluing, etc.
(b) Class Exercises in Turning; Gorge and Chisel Work; Chucking, Rings, Caps, Boxes, etc.
(c) Class Exercises in Pattern Making.
3. **FORGING.** Class Exercises in Drawing, Upsetting, Welding, Tempering, Brazing, and Tool-making.
4. **METAL FITTING.** Class Exercises in Chipping, Filing, Planing, Turning, Screw-cutting, Polishing, Drilling, Shrinking, and Hand-tooling.
5. **PROJECTS.** Finished Work; Jack-screw, complete; Boring Bar, and Horizontal Engine, cylinder $4\frac{1}{2}$ in. \times 6 in.

THE INDUSTRIAL SCHOOL OF THE SANTEE INDIAN AGENCY, KNOX CO., NEB.

This exhibit showed some of the products made by the boy students in learning the several trades of carpentry, blacksmithing, shoemaking, brickmaking; and by the girls in learning the feminine arts, of knitting and sewing.

THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS OF STILLWATER, MINNESOTA.

This exhibit consisted of a large number of articles made by Mr. F. T. Wilson, Principal of the high school, for illustration in Natural Philosophy. Their purpose was to show what can be done at home in the making of good serviceable apparatus for illustration.

In conclusion, your committee desire to express their profound satisfaction with the evidence furnished by these exhibits of the rapid extension of better methods of instruction in the various technological departments of our higher schools. And they farther venture to suggest, that in future exhibitions of this kind still greater pains be taken to show how the several articles are related to the course of instruction. To a considerable extent this was done in the present instance, but still greater effort in this direction would have added greatly to the educational value of the exhibition.

S. R. THOMPSON, *for the Committee.*

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON SPECIAL EXHIBITS.

HON. J. H. SMART, *Director of Exhibits*:

Dear Sir: The committee on special exhibits submit the following very brief report. The following is a list of the exhibits:

1. Exhibit of the American Missionary Association, under the direction of Rev. Albert Salisbury, Superintendent of the Mission. The exhibit comprised specimens of work of Indian and of colored pupils, showing their handicraft as well as their mental acquirements.
2. Industrial exhibit of the school for the feeble-minded, Boston, under the direction of Miss L. Laura Moulton, principal teacher in the school. The exhibit displayed not only specimens of manual skill, but also specimens of writing, reckoning, and of artistic taste.
3. Music Charts from Japan, exhibited by Prof. Luther W. Mason, of Boston, the author of the charts and sometimes teacher of music in Japanese schools.
4. Topical method of teaching geography, exhibited by Mr. Chas. F. King, sub-master of Lewis grammar school, Boston. The exhibit consisted of work completed by pupils who had pursued the system.
5. Exhibit of specimens in zoology, mineralogy, and geology, from Ward's Natural Science Establishment at Rochester, N. Y. The exhibit was under the direction of Messrs. Ward and Howell.
6. Solar camera, exhibited by Prof. Chas. F. Adams, of the State Normal School, Worcester, Mass., in order to show the use of the instrument when introduced to aid pupils to study geography.
7. Adams' Historical Chart, exhibited by Mr. G. W. Dorman, Chicago, Ill.
8. Relief map made by students in the normal school, at River Falls, Wis.
9. Jas. W. Queen & Co., Philadelphia, Penn., Philosophical and Chemical apparatus.
10. Union School Furniture Co., Chicago, Ill.
11. Books, Magazines, Artist's Drawings, D. Lothrop & Co., Boston, Mass.
12. { "National Journal of Education," }
 13. { "The American Teacher," } T. W. Bicknell & Co., Boston,
 13. { "Education," } Mass.
 14. Chas. De Medici, Chicago, Ill., Commensuration.

15. Encyclopædia Britannica, J. L. Atwater, Chicago, Ill.
16. Soule Photograph Co., Boston, Mass.
17. The People's Cyclopædia, Phillips & Hunt, New York.
18. The Central School Journal, Keokuk, Ia.
19. The Practical Teacher, Chicago, Ill.
20. A. Flanagan, Chicago, Ill., Pub. Books on Teaching.
21. The Tonic Sol Fa System, Biglow & Main.
22. Levy, Baker & Co., Indianapolis, Ind., Stationery, Blank Books, and School Architecture.
23. L. D. McIntosh, Chicago, Ill., Optical Apparatus.
24. W. A. Olmstead & Co., Chicago, Ill., School Supplies.
25. The Index and Educational Journal, Ann Arbor, Mich.
26. American Meteorological Journal, Detroit, Mich.
27. Freeman & Riddle, Columbus, O., Geographical and Historical Charts.
28. { "The School Journal," }
 { "The Teachers' Institute," } E. L. Kellogg & Co., New York.
29. Penmanship Instruction Card, J. H. Read, Lancaster, Wis.
30. R. E. Bean & Co., Franklin Falls, N. H., Ready Binder.
31. L. D. Allen, Fair Haven, Vt., Slate Blackboard.

Did the space allotted to this report in the volume of proceedings permit, the committee would be very much pleased to review at considerable length the many points of merit that the exhibits presented; to compliment the ingenuity and learning which were revealed by those who constructed such valuable school appliances as were placed in the exhibits; to analyze the several systems of instruction that were illustrated in the exhibits; to enumerate the educational value of the various systems of instruction that were represented in the work shown; to dwell upon the difficult educational problems that confronted those who exhibited educational specimens; to trace historically the origin and progress of those organizations represented, that purpose to cherish and nurture the unfortunate; to mark the progressive spirit of the age in all that pertains to educational theories and practices, so far as it was manifest in the exhibits; and to note with favorable comments the success that rewarded the teachers whose exhibits indicated their intelligent dealings with pupils whose capacity was to them a feeble and an unknown quantity.

Nevertheless, your committee cannot conclude this report without pointing out plain inferences which some of the exhibits indicated. The exhibit made by Mr. Salisbury fairly demonstrates the proposition that industrial education is the fundamental requisite to enable primitive conditions of a people to be changed into civilization by the people themselves. Industrial education is the need of the Indian and the colored

man, in order to enable them to subsist by their own labors; and it is pursued primarily for its utility, not for its disciplinary value.

Miss Moulton's exhibit was an exhortation to teachers to redouble their effective energies and powers in the school-room; for the intelligence that made the specimens on exhibition had to be almost literally created by the teachers; the spark of mind had to be fanned into a flame of light by the instructor; the exhibit showed how well the efforts of the teachers were rewarded by success.

Prof. Mason's exhibit showed the progress among foreigners of American systems of instruction.

Respectfully submitted.

J. H. HOOSE,	} Committee.
E. T. TAPPAN,	
W. H. BARRINGER,	
V. C. DIBBLE,	
A. S. BOYDEN,	

CALENDAR OF MEETINGS.

NATIONAL TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.

1857.—PHILADELPHIA, PA.

Organized.

JAMES L. ENOS, Pres.
W. E. SHELDON, Sec.

1858.—CINCINNATI, OHIO.

Z. RICHARDS, Pres.
J. W. BULKLEY, Sec.
A. J. RICKOFF, Treas.

1859.—WASHINGTON, D. C.

A. J. RICKOFF, Pres.
J. W. BULKLEY, Sec.
C. S. PENNELL, Treas.

1860.—BUFFALO, N. Y.

J. W. BULKLEY, Pres.
Z. RICHARDS, Sec.
O. C. WIGHT, Treas.

1861.—No Session.

1862.—No Session.

1863.—CHICAGO, ILL.

JOHN D. PHILBRICK, Pres.
JAMES CRUIKSHANK, Sec.
O. G. WIGHT, Treas.

1864.—OGDENSBURG, N. Y.

W. H. WELLS, Pres.
DAVID N. CAMP, Sec.
RICHARDS, Treas.

1865.—HARRISBURG, PA.

S. S. GREENE, Pres.
WILLIAM E. SHELDON, Sec.
Z. RICHARDS, Treas.

1866.—INDIANAPOLIS, IND.

J. P. WICKESHAM, Pres.
S. H. WHITE, Sec.
S. P. BATES, Treas.

1867.—No Session.

1868.—NASHVILLE, TENN.

J. M. GREGORY, Pres.
L. VAN BOKKELEN, Sec.
JAMES CRUIKSHANK, Treas.

1869.—TRENTON, N. J.

L. VAN BOKKELEN, Pres.
W. E. CROSBY, Sec.
A. L. BARREN, Treas.

1870.—CLEVELAND, OHIO.

DANIEL B. HAGAR, Pres.
A. P. MARBLE, Sec.
W. E. CROSBY, Treas.

NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION.

1871.—ST. LOUIS, MO.

J. L. PICKARD, Pres.
W. E. CROSBY, Sec.
JOHN HANCOCK, Treas.

1872.—BOSTON, MASS.

E. E. WHITE, Pres.
S. H. WHITE, Sec.
JOHN HANCOCK, Treas.

1873.—ELMIRA, N. Y.

B. G. NORTHROP, Pres.
S. H. WHITE, Sec.
JOHN HANCOCK, Treas.

1874.—DETROIT, MICH.

S. H. WHITE, Pres.
A. P. MARBLE, Sec.
JOHN HANCOCK, Treas.

1875.—MINNEAPOLIS, MINN.

W. T. HARRIS, Pres.
W. R. ABBOT, Sec.
A. P. MARBLE, Treas.

1876.—BALTIMORE, MD.

W. F. PHELPS, Pres.
W. D. HENKLE, Sec.
A. P. MARBLE, Treas.

1877.—LOUISVILLE, KY.

M. A. NEWELL, Pres.
W. D. HENKLE, Sec.
J. ORMOND WILSON, Treas.

1878.—No Session.

1879.—PHILADELPHIA, PA.

JOHN HANCOCK, Pres.
W. D. HENKLE, Sec.
J. ORMOND WILSON, Treas.

1880.—CHAUTAQUA, N. Y.

J. ORMOND WILSON, Pres.
W. D. HENKLE, Sec.
E. T. TAPPAN, Treas.

1881.—ATLANTA, GA.

JAMES H. SMART, Pres.
W. D. HENKLE, Sec.
ELI T. TAPPAN, Treas.

1882.—SARATOGA SPRINGS, N. Y.

ELI T. TAPPAN, Pres.
W. E. SHELDON, Sec.
N. A. CALKINS, Treas.

1883.—SARATOGA, N. Y.

G. J. ORR, Pres.
W. D. HENKLE, Sec.
E. T. TAPPAN, Treas.

1884.—MADISON, WIS.

THOMAS W. BICKNELL, Pres.
H. S. TARRELL, Sec.
N. A. CALKINS, Treas.

NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF THE UNITED STATES.

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H. S. TARBELL, Indianapolis, Ind.	<i>Secretary.</i>
N. A. CALKINS, 124 East 80th Street, New York, N. Y.	<i>Treasurer.</i>

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PROCEEDINGS AND ADDRESSES

OF THE

NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION

AND THE

SEVERAL DEPARTMENTS.

THE NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION.

OPENING SESSION AT MADISON, WISCONSIN.

JULY 15, 1884.

The opening session of the Association was held in the Assembly Chamber of the Capitol, the President, Thomas W. Bicknell, presiding. The meeting was called to order at eight o'clock. After music by Lueder's Band and the singing of the Doxology, the following prayer was offered by the Rev. Dr. Magoon, President of Iowa College, Grinnell, Iowa :

PRAYER.

Our Heavenly Father : we thank Thee for this assemblage of the teachers of the land and for Thy good Providence which has brought us together. We ask Thy blessing to rest upon us, and we ask it with hope and courage because Thou hast favored the coming together of these instructors of youth so greatly. We offer Thee our thanks this evening for the circumstances of convenience and privilege and enjoyment under which we assemble. We offer Thee thanks for all the courtesies and hospitalities which have been extended to us ; for the success Thou hast given to the endeavors of Thy servants, the officers of this National Association in making the arrangements for this meeting, and for Thy blessing in this kindly and sweet air which we breathe, in the comforts we enjoy day by day, and in what has already appeared of the spirit and power of this meeting of teachers. Now, Heavenly Father, be pleased to be with us not only this evening, while we listen to such words as shall be addressed to us, but in every session. In the other assemblages at this hour be present, and in all our assemblages day by day. God grant His great blessing on these Thy servants who have come up from various parts of the land, and are engaged in training those who are to come after us and discharge the duties that now rest upon us. Give choicest blessings of wisdom to all who teach. Pour Thy spirit down upon all officers and all charged with responsibility in respect to our schools. Through the length and breadth of the land give the people an earnest and generous and forecasting spirit in respect to the training of the young, and let Thy grace be in our hearts, that we may give to Thee the glory of all our privileges and of all our success in labor, and that we may be able to give to those who shall come after us greater privileges in respect to training for usefulness and duty than were accorded to us. The Lord heard us for His dear Son's sake, Amen.

THE PRESIDENT: *Ladies and Gentlemen, members of the National Educational Association:* I congratulate you on your presence at this opening session of the Association, and, in its behalf, extend to you a cordial invitation to all the meetings of this week, and to all the privileges which this occasion offers us. We meet as members and friends of one of the noblest callings in our land, in this beautiful capital city of the Northwest, in a State which has been among the foremost in the cause of learning and religion. We are among friends, whose warm hearts and cordial hospitalities are extended to greet and to cheer us, and to a social as well as educational feast we are bidden as gladly welcome guests. Let these delightful days be filled with the best occupation of our social and professional opportunities, and let us partake in large measure of "the corn and the wine" of this promised land.

Looking over this great country for the orator of the evening, we sought to find a patriot, a scholar, and an educator, one who could take a comprehensive view of our educational needs as a people and who could inspire this meeting with a key-note of lofty thoughts and noble endeavors. As the result of our search, it is my great pleasure to introduce to this great audience of American teachers, the Honorable Dr. Curry, general agent of the Peabody Fund, and a resident of the Commonwealth of Virginia.

DR. CURRY: *Mr. President, Ladies and Gentlemen:* There is a fitness of things in the fact that this grandest and most numerous assemblage of educators and teachers that ever came together on the American continent, should meet in the most beautiful as well as the most hospitable capital city of our great Union. All of us since we have been here have realized the beauty and the appropriateness of the description of Longfellow when speaking of this city, he said—

"All like a floating landscape seems,
In cloudland or the land of dreams,
Bathed in the golden atmosphere."

But a few days ago! in a neighboring city there were conventions fierce and hot of the two great hostile parties of the republic, the "ins" striving to keep out the "outs" and the "outs" striving to oust the "ins." This great convention comes together, not with hostile purpose or selfish intent but for the purpose of preserving the republic and of making it worth preserving; and I have said that it was fit that we should meet together in this most beautiful of our capital cities. Here, where we are, is the Capitol, where assemble the departments of the State government, and at the other end of the avenue, confronting this building, stands the great University of this young State; one looking upon the other, both joining hands together, law and learning in fellowship bound for the promotion of humanity and the development of the manhood and the womanhood of this great people.

CITIZENSHIP AND EDUCATION.

BY J. L. M. CURRY, LL.D., RICHMOND, VA.

My purpose is practical,—to deduce and enforce a moral. As all art is derived from science, so the practical is best reached through the philosophical. My aim is to make such a statement as to American citizenship as to set us thinking about present aspects and future needs, and to divining, and therefore controlling, the destiny in store for us. The past may furnish lessons of wisdom, helping us to solve serious problems of statesmanship. The right reading of the present may enable us to forecast the future and make proper and vigorous preparation for it. It would be criminal for such an assemblage of educators not to inquire thoughtfully into the social, moral, and intellectual condition of the people, to ascertain their wants; to devise means to better their condition; to avert possible perils; to help the weak and ignorant in securing their individual and political rights.

Great Britain in her colonization sought to found an empire, and wrought wiser than she knew. The purpose was accomplished, but by means entirely different from what she intended. The secession of the Colonies thwarted her immediate plans, but accomplished the end more certainly and wisely.

The Declaration of Independence was pregnant with momentous consequences. The New World had been the plaything of popes and kings, and the dominant policy had been that of direction, control, and repression. The Declaration was the announcement of free-will and of equal and inalienable human rights. It was not aggressive propagandism, not Quixotic crusade for humanity, but a calm appeal to ancient charters, a new and bold application of necessary truths.

The United States now has a robust young life. The growth has been unparalleled. Since the Colonies formed an Union of equal States, the population has multiplied sixteen-fold, and now exceeds the population of any European State. Exodus from Europe is regarded therè with disfavor. To us, immigration has been a source of strength and wealth. The centre of population gradually moves westward. Territories are organized and rapidly mature in to States, Colorado and Nevada entering the sisterhood on the same basis of equality with Massachusetts and Virginia. This expansion is not a symptom of weakness, but the means and the proof of increasing strength. Bigness becomes greatness. Old States and new, in one

federative organization, — an indissoluble union of indestructible equals, — are held together, without jealousy or inequality, without claim of political superiority on the part of older or larger States, all enjoying in equal degree civil and religious freedom.

Science by electricity and steam has so brought into close proximity and unified our widely extended country as to remove the apprehension felt by some of the fathers of the Republic, as growing out of conflict of interests and rarefied patriotism.

Our power of recuperation astonishes. Storms, floods, drought, riots, wars, plagues, seem not to prevent or delay progress. Bad legislation and departure from soundest principles of currency and political economy are comparatively innocuous. What has elicited such commendation for France because of her recovered resources, has been more than eclipsed here. Climate, soil, diversity of products, allied to the creativeness of free institutions, unrestricted trade among the States, and the energy, hopefulness, and irrepressibleness of the people, have wrought these magical results.

There is danger, however, growing out of pride, presumption, and the intoxication of material and military success. Our history is not to be a record of dynasties, families, reigns, presidencies, stock-boards, and incomes; but the evolution of ideas, the progress of liberty and human development.

Our governments,—Federal and State,—interrelated and dependent, are based on the equality of the States and the equality and citizenship of the inhabitants. We recognize no such relation as one person or State being subject to another person or State as dominant sovereign. Filmer's "kingship by the grace of God" has no adherents except among the few who deny the right of universal education and talk about Dissenters and Non-Conformists in religion. Our universal and equal citizenship is an evolution of American civilization and freedom. A distinction exists betwixt citizen and subject. Bonaparte made his ally Tippo in India *Citoyen Tipou*, but a citizen with us is one born of American parents or naturalized by due process of law, and as such is entitled to all the rights, privileges, and immunities of any other citizen. Political rights belong equally to every citizen and inhere in the nature of American citizenship. Under our free governments, we have no castes nor legal classes, and recognize no distinctions, no subjects, no slaves. No one here has his place in life predetermined by the name or title his father wore, or by the family of which he is a member. There are no gradations of citizenship. A tailor or a canal-boy, equally with the most wealthy, is eligible to highest offices.

Recognizing the right of expatriation, having sympathy with the oppressed, needing an increase of population, our land was thrown open to all comers. Twice in our history have immigrants created parties controlling State and Congressional elections. The general sentiment has proscribed proscription and welcomed all Europeans. In the present Congress twenty-one of the members are by birth aliens, and, according to Justice Strong, twenty-five were elected in part by constituencies of unnaturalized aliens.

Assimilation of different nationalities has been hastened by the dispersion of the immigrants and the unifying influence of churches and schools. Common education and the universal and proper adoption of the English language in instruction and in courts and legislatures have prevented many evils. We should tolerate no Scandinavian, German, Italian, or Irish factions or parties; no half-hearted allegiance to country of adoption; no paramount attachment to fatherland. It cannot be too forcibly emphasized that this is not Germany nor Ireland; that questions which pertain to Bismarck and Parnell, to Alsace and Lorraine, and Cork and Ulster, are not to be engrafted on American politics, nor to nullify the Washingtonian policy of abstinence from entangling alliances with foreign powers. Kossuth may inflame popular enthusiasm in behalf of the Magyars, but neither the executive, nor the Congress, nor secret societies with foreign symbols, must embroil us with transatlantic strifes. The early settlers may have subverted nations and governments, extinguished families and languages, disposed of land as dominant parties do of spoils, but we cannot consent that our Government and institutions shall share the fate of the civilization of the red man.

Our citizenship is complicated and lacking in homogeneity. There are three classes of citizens: (*a*) those of one race and nationality; (*b*) those of same race and different nationalities; and (*c*) those of different races. Community of race, community of religion, and community of interest, have been regarded as the three strong ties which hold States in unity, — as fundamental conditions of peace and stability. In a monarchy there may be a mechanical union of alien races and nationalities, but in a free, representative government, until the fusion and assimilation are complete, there will be continually recurring weakness and danger. It is not quick nor easy work to conquer or eradicate racial prejudices; and in matters where questions of race are even remotely concerned, you may expect bitter alienations and

¹ It may be mentioned that our early colonists, with few exceptions, "belonged to a common stock, and proceeded from a single nation, having common political instincts and the traditions of common institutions."

hostility. Macaulay makes Protestantism and Romanism to depend largely on Teutonic and Latin origin of peoples. The tendency to alienation and separateness may be aggravated by long tradition, by antecedent dependence and inferiority, and be less controllable when the racial badge is ineffaceably stamped in physical characteristics. Ethnological differences have been a serious obstacle to high civilization and advancing freedom. A congeries of strongly-marked, widely-variant races may be held in cohesion by external force, but that is the antipodes of our theory of government. Autocratic Russia has Slavs, Germans, Turcomans, Armenians, Greek-Christians, Roman Catholics, Protestants, Mussulmen, and Buddhists; but to make a homogeneous and prosperous people of Caucasians, Indians, Africans, and Mongolians, in our free Republic, some substitute must be found for the repressive and mechanical force of despotism.

Two distinguishing and conservative peculiarities, if not excellencies, of our system of government seem to be disappearing, and should arrest the attention of the patriot.

(a) A novel feature of our Republic was its complex character,—its dual system of Federal and of State governments, united to the extent of the powers delegated, separated as to powers withheld. The separate States organized themselves into one representative republic, “embracing all the guaranties of civil liberty then known to man, and having a principle of expansion which should extend these guaranties to every new polity which might arise in all the future of America,” by bringing new and equal States into the Union. Some of England’s wisest statemen have suggested, as a solution of the colonial problem, the establishment, after the American model, of an “imperial parliament, controlling an assemblage of federalized states, each possessing the fullest measure of home rule.” The federal form of government as a political formation is not historically new, but this duality and inter-citizenship, and absolute divorce of state and church, are our contributions to the science of politics. The drift is now toward centralization and the absorption of the local governments, which were once regarded as vital to the development and preservation of our institutions. The thoughtful political student must have noticed in late years the contraction of State interests, and the expansion of national relations, interests, and powers. It is, for instance, gravely proposed by jurists and theologians to transfer from State to Federal jurisdiction the whole subject of marriage and divorce. States seem to be sinking to inferior, subordinate municipalities, sustaining the relation to the General Government that counties do to a State. A strike, a local riot, has caused abdication of State autonomy and

refuge as a helpless suppliant to national protection. Secession, or the right of State interposition, for the redress of grievances, is as dead as African slavery, but the States are as important and as valuable as the Union.

(b) Whatever advantages were supposed to accrue from a written Constitution of well defined grants and limitations have been practically ignored, under pressure of exigencies or in view of real or supposed benefits to grow out of consolidated power, or an unlimited central government. The Constitution, wherein, as Macintosh said, "the authors constructed a great, permanent, experimental answer to the sophisms and declamations of the detractors of liberty," embodied in systematic form and precise language what in England is "expressed tacitly in institutions, or scattered in archives and antiquated records." The instrument was ordained by the preëxisting States as their grant of well-defined powers, but party assumptions and national needs have made it popular to regard the complete expression of governmental power in a written code as impossible. Compression within the limits of exact language is sneered at as Utopian, and permanent changes have been wrought without recourse to the constitution-amending authority,—the certain determinate bodies provided for the purpose. It must be conceded that the argument for flexibility has much force. The artificial mechanism of a written Constitution is not a guaranty of good government. If ours is a *living* organism, there must be growth. This is the law of life, of progress. To deny this growth is to paralyze effort. Original completeness transcends human wisdom. Political infallibility is as heretical as ecclesiastical or clerical. As vigorous life comes on, new forms may be required, but still we should not be ready to concede that a constitution violated is a constitution abrogated.

As the organic law in its restraining efficacy is losing its potency, so, from hyper-democratic theories, domination of selfish passions, and want of proper training as to duties of citizenship, *law* is losing its majesty and authoritativeness, and the individual citizen is elevated above the supremacy of society and of the state. Freedom is perverted into a right to throw off restraints, gratify resentments, and render property insecure and worthless. In a monarchy the supreme power is more or less centered in a living person, and is backed by a ready police and obedient soldiery, while tradition and loyalty are auxiliary forces to insure subjection and obedience. In a republic law is somewhat impersonal, and sovereignty is not seen. General suffrage, vicious demagoguism, false and mischievous notions as to popular sovereignty, or the absolute supremacy of the majority, com-

bine to rob law of its sanctions, and to give ascendancy to the whims and passions of the populace, to the licentious frenzy of a mob. The Athenians justified themselves in acting in contradiction to the laws on the ground that they were the people, made the laws, and could unmake them. De Tocqueville said that all classes in the United States are attached to the legislation by a kind of parental affection. It is rather to be feared that enactments are set aside because of this supposed parental authority, and the fable of Saturn devouring his children finds realization in our day. The too prevalent theory is, that as law exists in the will of the people, it can only exist when it accords with that will, whether expressed through legislative forms, in a town meeting, or by an irrational, proscribing, confiscating, ferocious mob. It is not the French alone who say, *Le peuple-empereur*. The acts of the people are valid and authoritative as laws only when done through prescribed forms. The people, in the aggregate, outside of a political organism and preëstablished rules, can do no act which has legal vitality. An absolute democracy is where the will of the people, whenever, wherever, or however expressed, is the supreme law. Our "conscript fathers" were guilty of no such folly as this in establishing our governments. Power, undivided, unchecked, is absolutism, whether in the hands of one, or of the few, or of the many. The error is too common, that political liberty consists in unlicensed freedom and in the absence of restraints. The passions of men need subjection in order to the enjoyment by others of their rights. The preference of society over undisciplined nature is that, by a power exterior to unorganized men, to which obedience can be enforced, "the inclinations of men can be thwarted, their wills subdued, and their passions bridled."

There can be no liberty where the citizen is not subject to the law ; that is, to "public opinion organically passed over into public will." This is the supremacy of law ; the union of law and order ; combination of liberty and authority. To this awe-inspiring majesty of law there must be ready acquiescence.

Protection against kingly absolutism entered into all the great struggles in the mother-country for civil freedom. The dispensing power of the Stuarts, the higher law of monarchs, was resisted to revolution and blood, but absolutism of a majority may be more dangerous. "Give me," says President White, "an autocrat ; give me a despot, the worst in history, and I will take him cheerfully rather than that many-headed despot, an unenlightened, uneducated democracy." In fleeing from the divine right of kings, let us not plunge into democratic might, for one is as hostile to true liberty as the other. Civil liberty

liberty applied to political man, means checks in restraint of all human power. Supremacy of law applies to cabals, factions, parties, the clamorous, heady multitude, as well as to Stuarts, Bourbons, and Hapsburghers.

The severity of the old Hebrew law-giver needs to be revived in these sentimental, disjointed days of the gospel of the dynamite and the dagger. Moses recognized LAW as of vital importance, and had a notion that it was made to be obeyed. We need a revival of that antiquated sentiment in American citizenship. The needed lesson should be diligently taught in every school-room. The "welfare of a people and its inner moral greatness can only prosper through the rule of right embodied in the law."

There may be forms of aggression on property and person kindred to this. The remedy of riots has its crazy votaries, but the more peaceful gospel of the omnipotence of the ballot-box has a larger following. It is common to confound citizenship and suffrage, but they are quite distinct, and are not equal in logical or political extent. Suffrage is not a natural right, nor *ex necessitate* a political right, nor commonly a consequence of citizenship.

Human and political rights differ widely. The rights of man are innate and universal. Political rights are special and limited. The elective franchise is the gift of a sacred trust, a matter of wise discretion, of governmental policy, the granting or withholding of which is to be determined by its bearing on the general ends of good government. Government in its character, form, and methods of administration is tentative, is a balancing of probabilities. Its organism is determined by environments, and is at best an imperfect and changeable "working hypothesis" to secure life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness. Self-government is not a creation, but a slow growth, a tardy evolution. Few people are fit for it. Extension of franchise is a living question in such a free and enlightened government as is Great Britain. Generally, in the Union manhood suffrage is conceded.

Some of the States formerly had property qualifications. Massachusetts, South Carolina, Connecticut, and Rhode Island impose an educational condition. Several States require prepayment of poll or other taxes. Universal suffrage is a myth. Age, residence, sex, mental condition, civil status, are universal limitations. Children, women, paupers, soldiers, insane, and certain criminals are debarred. Indians and Chinese are excluded, and the wildest visionary has not sought to make *them* safe and useful citizens by giving them the right to vote. Negroes when emancipated had suffrage imposed upon them, and the blunder of the centuries is irrevocable.

There is everywhere a limitation in law upon majorities. States, counties, and towns, as political divisions ; three departments of government, two branches of the Legislature, electoral districts, fixed times for elections, registration, etc., are all based on the idea of concurrent majorities and of fair and intelligent use of the franchise. All these limitations presuppose evils as resulting from unorganized action and from the unlimited right of the citizen to vote. Universal suffrage, if possible, would rest on the assumption that a State is an individual unit, a "collection of atomistic individuals." As this radical democratic theory is approached, it is pure chance whether the representatives are honest and intelligent, or vicious and ignorant, and there remains not the vaguest assurance of the public weal.

Giving suffrage to a mass of unlettered and suddenly-emancipated negroes, making them depositaries of large political powers, was the severest strain to which our Republic has been subjected.¹ Whatever justification or provocation inspired the experiment, there was a disregard of the fears which the philosophic and liberal Macintosh had of the "establishment of universal suffrage among emancipated slaves." It was sad irony to mock with a "free ballot" a race which in the past had achieved comparatively nothing in agriculture, science, and government, and in this country had had, from legal disabilities, by no fault of their own, no experience of freedom, no opportunities, except from contact with a superior race, for fitting them for the responsibilities of citizenship. Now, fortunately, the negroes have personal and civil liberty, equal claim for protection, justice, freedom, and education ; but they have little individuality, little power of independent initiative, loose ideas as to value of character and the nature and working of our institutions, and are too thoroughly untrained in family government and political affairs to have the delicate and difficult functions of a free representative government committed to their hands.

We have seen that citizenship involves grave duties and solemn trusts,—that the General Government is *in transitu* from a republic with a written constitution of well-defined grants and limitations to a government where the loosely-expressed will of the people is supreme,—that we have a heterogeneous conglomeration of different nationalities and races, and that suffrage has been pushed to an extreme in disregard of the teachings of history and philosophy. It follows from

¹ Senator Blair, to whom the South and the youth should put a statue in the Hall of the Nation's glory, said: "Secession, and a confederacy founded upon slavery as its chief corner-stone, would be better than the future of the Southern States; better for both races, too, if the nation is to permit one-third, and that the fairest portion, of its domain to become the spawning-ground of ignorance, vice, anarchy, and of every crime."

these and other considerations that the obligation to educate American citizens is unspeakably imperative. Families, churches, communities, State and General Governments, separately and in combination, should put forth such sufficient efforts as will give every facility to citizens for obtaining such a degree of knowledge as may render it safe to trust them with power and as will qualify all for an independent, intelligent, and safe exercise of their privileges.

It may be well for this immense assemblage, representing every State and Territory in the Union, to express in no dubious terms its sense of the paramount national importance of the passage by the House of Representatives of the Senate bill giving federal aid to the public schools of the States. Nothing is more astonishing than the stolid unconcern with which some men in high positions, clothed with remedial power, look upon the perils to civilization and free institutions which a mass of uneducated and semi-civilized citizens creates. One cannot but regret that this measure of emancipation from the bondage of ignorance had not been consummated on the Fourth of July, thus doubly hallowing that day as a second anniversary of independence and liberty.

Education is an universal right, a prime necessity of man, and it is the duty of the State to provide it, because, as Macaulay said, it is the most efficient, the most humane, the most civilized, and, in all respects, the best means of attaining the main end of government. A certain minimum of education is the right of every child, and the child will fail to secure unless the State provide. In the most civilized communities the practical decision has been that the State must put children into a condition to "understand the duties obligatory upon them and to earn an independent livelihood." The well-being of the children and of all others demands this. The existence of a free commonwealth demands it. Where the minimum is to be fixed is not *a priori* determinable. What is the limit within which a State may assume to educate by a tax on property? is a question of practical politics that I forego the discussion of.

Education should be so conducted as to make good, law-abiding, self-supporting, productive people. This, however, is wider than the theme assigned. My thesis is limited by citizenship, which implies that the citizen requires some general education, and some special education of a civic character. As to the first, without it the functions of citizenship cannot otherwise be safely discharged, or the just expectations of American citizens be realized. Citizenship in a free, representative, constitutional Republic presupposes more general culture and enlightenment than is needed in a less popular gov-

ernment. Suffrage is a mockery unless based on the intelligence of the voter,—on some knowledge of the character, conduct, and creed of the person voted for. Eligibility to office implies a larger measure of knowledge. Jury and other civil duties cannot be well met by ignorant citizens. What a select or privileged class does elsewhere is here devolved without class-discrimination on the mass of adult male citizens. It is of little use to concede political rights to all unless they can be so far assisted as to qualify for an intelligent and independent exercise of those rights. The character of our Federal and State governments and general manhood suffrage give American schools a new character, and perforce make them *quasi* national institutions. The educated citizen becomes a bulwark of society as he has a stake in public order and welfare. In the absence of general education, who is hopeful of the perpetuity of our institutions; what guaranty against Nihilism and Communism; the vulgar arts of bribery; what security for property, which owes its existence and value to the recognition and fiat of Society? An ignorant and unproductive citizen is full of "communistic dreams about labor and wages,"—cares little for stability or security, and is the ready tool of demagogue and conspirator. If we choose ignorance, we make ignorance the arbiter of our social and national life; for, as one of our profoundest thinkers has tersely said, "we are tethered to the lowest stratum of our population, and must accept their influence on our politics."

The need of a special education of a civil character, of "schools of citizenship and patriotism," may not be so apparent.

Political discussions are educatory,—furnishing information, teaching tolerance, and accustoming to look at both sides. I have heard able debates from the stump, by formidable and courteous opponents, on tariff, currency, annexation, Mexican war, treaty obligations, nature of the government, rights and remedies of States, that would have been creditable in highest legislative assemblies. Those who were thus habitually addressed reached a discipline and maturity of thought and a familiarity with public questions not equalled in the best days of Athens, and thus were evolved some of the grandest men of this century. Caucuses, despotism of party machinery, insolence of bosses and factions, corruption of the spoils theory, struggle for survival, have banished these face-to-face discussions.

The newspapers are invaluable agencies in training for civic duties. Local self-government is a schoolmaster leading the people to familiarity with details of administration and methods of government. Out of these educatory processes come much roughness, incapacity, error, harm, but also experience and higher attainments.

Trial by jury, which Lieber regarded as a vital guaranty of civil liberty, has indirect and tuitionary effects which are most wholesome, star route trials to the contrary notwithstanding. It is a great "business and political school of the people qualifying themselves for self-government. It connects the administration of the law, which in early times was in the hands of the nobles, with the people," so that in judicial proceedings the people have a voice as well as in the legislature.

It has been often remarked that a democratic government is better adapted for the peaceful conduct of society, or for an occasional effort of extraordinary vigor, than for the hardy and prolonged endurance of the storms which beset nations. An intelligent experience and calm judgment may give clear perception of the future and prepare for patient endurance of national crises. A democracy is often the slave of prejudice and passion, the facile instrument of demagogues and despots. Disappointments and temporary ills fret and enrage, and the exigency of the moment controls instead of cool reason and the public good. "Ignorance deprives a man of foresight. . . . Foresight is the guide and the stimulus to the exertion of active power, and just in proportion to the want of it must men be directed and compelled by force outside themselves. Ignorant men are liable to fall an easy prey to their appetites and passions. Self-control is the product of knowledge and training."

The overpowering strength of the masses, the fearful energy with which they may be made to act, the excessive liberty, too often unrestrained and unrebuked, can be pushed into despotism, making paper securities and plighted faith and personal rights and corporate franchises as "green withes" in the hands of the misled and infuriated people. Before the fiery breath of a Cincinnati mob public buildings and records, private property and human life, are alike insecure and perishable. Free government can only reach its truest development as a sound and intelligent public opinion is elaborated, collected, and expressed through preordained forms and institutions organized over a country. The trial of the generals who fought at Arginusæ has a pregnant lesson for us. The commanders in that successful and brilliant action were condemned to a felon's doom by the precipitate and uncontrollable wrath of a deluded populace. The unchained Demos would hear nothing of law, and "clamored that it was monstrous if the people should not be allowed to do whatever seemed good to them." The character of the Athenian Demos in this transaction,—fickle, heady, unprincipled, superstitious, merciless,—justifies Plato when he compares a furious and demagogue-driven people to a drunken crew who destroy their pilot. The un-

tutored or corrupted democratic voice sometimes declares for an imperial despotism. A plebiscite in France enthrones perjury and tyranny, and thus the multitude of the ignorant and irresponsible became the foe of liberty, the annuller of compacts, the facile servants of unscrupulous Catilines.

If governments furnish and control education, it would seem to be a corollary that one chief end should be to fit youth for good and useful citizenship. An acquaintance with certain social and political questions, their historical origin and growth, their tendencies, might be given without being degraded to partisanship. Service as jurors, as municipal, county, State, federal officers, requires some acquaintance with the structure of government. Presidential and congressional elections sometimes involve questions of much magnitude and far-reaching interest.

Every voter acts representatively. In one sense, it is not true that he can vote as he pleases. Government is an instrument, not an end; and all concerned, from President to the most fatuous voter, act as trustees and guardians. The Federal Constitution might well be studied in its general features, for it is easily understood when studied apart from selfish greed, legislative infraction, and judicial usurpation. Gladstone, the greatest living statesman, in *Kin beyond Sea*, said, "The American Constitution is, so far as I can see, the most wonderful work ever struck off at a given time by the brain and purpose of man."

Some rudimentary principles of political economy, of taxation, of currency, — some clear understanding of personal liberty, of the inalienable rights of conscience, of ethical truth, — would be valuable information to any citizen. Said Mr. Forster in 1875, "No boy ought to leave school without knowing what the British Empire is. If he fully gains that knowledge, I think he will not seldom draw the inference that the British Empire ought to last, and determine that, as far as in him lies, he will do what he can to insure that it shall last." A similar result would certainly follow the proper study of American history, as accorded by impartial and catholic historians who recognize the virtues and achievements of all sections.

A people, whose political education has been wisely cared for, who have been taught to appreciate their share in the government,—not Napoleon's idea of government, "Everything for the people, nothing of the people," but the sounder and more American idea of President Lincoln, "A government of the people, by the people, and for the people,"—may, under the influence of panic or passion, go astray, but the sober, second thought of intelligent reaction will correct the aberration.

Startling as has been our progress as a people, austrous and beneficent as have been our achievements, useful as have been our contributions to the cause of liberty and the science of free government, yet abuses have sprung up ; bad men have put in practice bad methods ; low passions and propensities have repressed new and better aspirations ; offices have become spoils for partisan service ; success in an election is paramount to public good ; despotism of party makes the choice of a constable in Washington Territory dependent on the candidate's presidential preferences ; judges are partisan and legislatures are purchaseable. We need educated and patriotic citizens, an union of wise Conservatism and enlightened Progress, to remedy abuses, affect reforms, secure better and honester modes of administration ; to stimulate and guide an upward tendency ; to follow ideas rather than prescription and tradition ; to give fullest protection to the rights of every citizen ; to make our complex and correlated governments, in fact, as in theory, the embodiments and guarantors of justice, integrity, equality, and freedom.

This leads to the closing thought. Let us lift the duty and the right of education to a higher plane. Our institutions, the grandest experiment of self-government, are based on the essential freedom of man. There is no exaltation of class above class, no recognition of legal distinctions. Politically, the humblest would shake hands with the Queen upon her throne, and think it honor to her Majesty. Man, politically, meets man as man, "without assumption on one side or cringing on the other, without contempt on the one side or impudence on the other." As a freeman, with absolute equality in the eye of the law, every one is entitled to education. Humanity is above citizenship or nationality. Man existed before the State, and will live after it. Citizenship in a constitutional, representative, federal Republic, or in a free State, is a high honor and privilege, but a man is more than a citizen. He has a moral nature, an infinite destiny. Earth does not bound horizon, nor limit responsibilities and aspirations. What he is to be implies and demands discipline, education, progress, freedom. It is arrant blasphemy that a race, or a sex, or a class, or a man, is not to be developed to fullest possible capabilities. Education is very defective if it have not reference to man's nobler nature, the spiritual, the immortal. Proper training for the future fits for the present. The two are indissolubly allied. One who truly lives, recognizes his relation to the Divine, the Eternal, his citizenship in heaven, best discharges civic duties on earth. False to God, false to society. Development of the intellect does not suffice. The better and nobler part of man must not be ignored.

SECOND SESSION.

WEDNESDAY, JULY 16.

Owing to the crowds of people in attendance, it was found necessary to hold the morning session in the Capitol Park, the speakers and musicians occupying a platform on the eastern steps of the Capitol; President Bicknell presiding.

Prayer was offered by Rev. C. H. Richards, of Madison, Wisconsin.

PRAYER.

Oh, Lord God, our Heavenly Father: we thank Thee for those blessings which Thou art continually pouring into our lives; for the brightness and beauty of this morning, and for the privilege of this great gathering here at this time. We thank Thee for the minds Thou hast bestowed upon us, and for the opportunities of development and enlargement which Thou hast given us, for these great privileges of Christian education in this Christian land. And now we ask Thy blessing upon all the deliberations of this National Association of Teachers. Guide them in all their consultations. Shine Thou into their minds and make them go forth from this meeting better fitted for their great and important work, better fitted to train the young and rising generation in the ways of power and of usefulness: and may the thought of this assembly be a perpetual joy to their hearts. Bless the President and officers of this Association. Bless all the teachers that are here gathered. Bless all the youth of our land, and may they not only be taught and trained in regard to the things that may make them wise for the present life, but may they receive also that moral and spiritual development and enlargement that shall give them the eternal life. Pour out Thy blessing, we pray Thee, upon this Commonwealth of Wisconsin, upon its Governor and all its officers, and all the people. Give Thy blessing to the President of the United States and all associated with him in power and authority. Bless this great nation of ours, and so give it intelligence and training that going forward from this point of advantage it may have larger prosperity and greater usefulness to the end of time. So guide us and keep us evermore, through Jesus Christ our Lord; Amen.

[*Music by Lueder's Band.*]

THE PRESIDENT: *Members of the National Association, Ladies and Gentlemen:*

I am both guest and host this morning, having lived in Madison for the last twelve months in my thought and interest with reference to this great meeting. But I must take the part of host in reference to the National Educational Association, and introduce those who are to welcome us to this beautiful city and to this noble State of the Northwest. Chief and first among all the citizens of Wisconsin to-day stands her distinguished son whom she has chosen as her Governor, and whom she has honored before in many capacities. Governor Rusk has served his country on the battlefield, going out as a Major in the service and returning as a General. He has represented Wisconsin in the national councils. He has occupied every position of honor and trust in this State from the lowest to the highest, and I have the pleasure of introducing to you, to welcome us to this grand State, the Hon. J. M. Rusk, Governor.

GOVERNOR RUSK'S ADDRESS.

Mr. President and members of the National Educational Association of the United States: It is a great pleasure to me to be able upon this occasion to bid you a cordial welcome to the State of Wisconsin. I will not attempt to detain you by many words. We meet you and greet you, and extend to you the right hand of fellowship. Coming as you do from every State of the Union upon this great occasion, we feel highly honored to have this Association with us. My friends, I had no idea of the extent of this Association and what this meeting would be when it was decided to hold it here; but any one who will look over your program and over the school exhibit will be satisfied that great good must come from this National Association of Teachers. We have a young State, but we are proud of its record and its natural gifts. Our people are industrious and generous, and will treat you while you are with us with kindness. I might say something in regard to the beautiful city of Madison, but our honored Mayor and other distinguished gentlemen are here to speak for the city, and they will do it. They have done everything in their power to make it pleasant for you while you remain with us, and you need not hesitate to ask for any favor they can grant. They will be as willing to bestow it as you are to receive it. *Mr. President and Teachers:* We are glad that this location was selected for this great occasion. We expect it will result in great good to our educational interests. Renewed energy and renewed life will take hold of our educational people. I again welcome you to this beautiful capital of our State. *Mr. President:* I thank you for selecting the State of Wisconsin as your place of holding this great national feast.

THE PRESIDENT: We thank you for preparing such a feast for us in Wisconsin. Madison has been growing upon me for the last twelve months. I watched its beauties here in the early September days. I have seen its winter snows and felt its cold; and this summer, coming back here, it seems almost a paradise of delight. I could give a long chapter of experiences of the pleasure and satisfaction I have derived in connection with this most beautiful city of the Northwest. I may almost say unparalleled in its beauty in the country; but I leave it for its honored Mayor, Mr. Stevens, one of its most distinguished citizens, to present to you some points with reference to Madison, and to extend to this Association the hospitalities of this city. I have the pleasure of introducing to you his Honor, Mayor Stevens, of Madison.

MAYOR STEVENS' ADDRESS.

Mr. President, Ladies and Gentlemen: Upon me, as a citizen of Madison, is devolved the pleasant duty of extending to this great gathering of educational people, the welcome of the citizens of Madison. In you we recognize the leading laborers of the country in educational work, abreast of—no doubt—the foremost of the world.

While complimented by the fact that Madison was selected as the place for your gathering, we yet feel that it was so selected, not unwisely, in consideration of our great interest in your work, begotten of our needs.

The population of the State of which this city is the capital is equal in number to seventy-four per cent. of the population of the great state of Massachusetts and to about one-fourth of that of the greater state of New York, and to nearly one-half of the total population of the thirteen original States, as it stood at the census of 1790. And while as compared with New York the total population is but twenty-three per cent., the school portion is fully twenty-nine per cent. and as compared with Massachusetts, while the total is seventy-four per cent., the school portion is fully ninety-four.

There are in attendance at Wisconsin schools not less than three hundred thousand (299,514) pupils. Our needs make interest for us in your work.

And we have interest from the fact that in common with the other communities of the country, we too are represented in your body and have here for examination and for comparison with that of others, the evidence of our educational work. In making this comparison it may be interesting to remember, that this, like many others at the West, is a transplanted community made up of those who were rooted elsewhere.

Within forty years, while the populations of New York and Massachusetts, each, have little more than doubled, that of Wisconsin has increased more than forty-fold. Thirty thousand in 1840, it is more than thirteen hundred thousand now.

We recognize the magnitude of the work before you and somewhat its difficulties. It is the old unsolved problem with which are associated the great names of the past. Strike from the history of civilization, that which pertains to education, and every chapter and page is mutilated. The history of one tells the life story of both.

In the philosophy of education—the discovery of methods—your labors may add to the gathered knowledge and wisdom of the past a little, but only a little—such accretion as one generation aided by those preceding it, may reasonably hope to make. The so called new methods are found to be, largely, old methods. The method of teaching by objects—words and things to go hand in hand—is as old as the time of Plato. The importance of the study of individual dispositions and of tenderness in discipline was urged in Quintilian's time. The contemporaneous training of body and mind, was practised as far back as the twelfth century. That children should be taught while playing, was orthodox school doctrine at the time of the Reformation. "Teach a thing first, then reason about it," says John Sturm, of Strasburg. The relation of the study of classics to education, a question now before the public, was discussed *pro* and *con*. in the sixteenth century. The ideal education of to-day is not greatly different from that of the Greeks and Romans. Nor is unmeasured zeal in this work, new in the world. Will many here undertake to stand in comparison with the good Pestalozzi?

But in the matter of testing and developing methods, there is before you an unexplored opportunity—one new to the world. For the first time in history it is possible to apply to educational methods, on a scale sufficiently large to justify a hope for practical results, the tests of experimentation and comparison. It is within the life, and possibly the business life of men here assembled, that steam was first largely applied to transportation uses, while later on came the telegraph. By these agencies, distance, as a barrier to intercommunication, has been annihilated. The countries of the world, though separated by great oceans are moored side by side, and cities, like files of soldiers, are in line touching elbows, and the open country is of the city a part. Such a gathering as this is was not possible in earlier days. You have come from every part of the land, overcoming in hours, distances, which a century ago, could not have been overcome in weeks, or months, or at all. Never before in this land and probably never in time, was there so great an assemblage of educational laborers.

May it not be hoped that from comparisons so widely made and the interchange of views so widely held, some standard or test, some nomenclature or formula will arise, by which methods may be tested and results measured and tabulated; to the end, that those methods found to be valueless, may be abandoned for all time?

Looking in this direction, is the fact, that professorships for the development of the science of pedagogics have lately been established in the universities of Germany, England, and the United States—and not in all England until 1873, only eleven years ago, while the fifth in order and probably latest in time in the United States, was established at the last meeting of the Regents of the University of the State of Wisconsin.

You are welcome at our city and our homes. If your numbers be such as to make our gift of comforts limited, you must take more of the *welcome*, which is unlimited.

THE PRESIDENT: We are absorbing your welcome in very large measure. Wisconsin has very many favorite sons who have distinguished themselves at home and abroad, on the field and in the council chamber, but I have in my mind one especially whom you all will be glad to hear, and whom Wisconsin and the country have always delighted to honor. An empty sleeve speaks too eloquently for me to say more at this moment. I

have the honor and the pleasure of introducing to you ex-Gov. Fairchild, of Wisconsin.

ADDRESS OF EX-GOV. LUCIUS FAIRCHILD.

Ladies and Gentlemen: I hardly know why my name was introduced into this program this morning, as our excellent Governor has welcomed you on behalf of the State of Wisconsin, and our excellent Mayor has so eloquently welcomed you to the city of Madison. I can only think that I am introduced because I have had the fortune, or misfortune—fortune I count it—to have been assigned to the duty of chairmanship of the Local Committee of Arrangements, and the Local Committee of Arrangements have resolved themselves during the last six weeks into a committee of chambermaids. We have searched the town with a fine rake for beds for you. We have searched Chicago for cots for you. We have searched other towns for blankets for you. We have stretched our hospitality to its utmost extent, but, as our Mayor has truly said, our welcome has not been stretched at all. The hearts of the people of Madison are large enough and warm enough to have welcomed ten thousand of you had they come, and had they given us due notice of their coming, they should have had a good warm meal three times a day and a good bed at night. I can add nothing to what has been so well said by the distinguished gentlemen. That you are welcome I think you must know. Every house in this town, almost without exception, high and low, rich and poor, has been opened to you, and in the lowliest house in town or the most luxurious mansion in town with the opening has come to you my friends a real, heartfelt welcome. They mean it. Madison has been proud to be selected as the place of your meeting. It is a white day in our history, and we shall mark it with a white piece of chalk. And we only hope, and our anxiety has been, that such arrangements as could be made for your comfort will meet with your approval. If there is a gentleman or lady in all this audience, or in this town to-day, that is not sufficiently accommodated, as they may think, they must lay it to our poor limits of capacity and nothing else. But I will tell you, my friends, there were in beds in this town very nearly five thousand strangers, and we had some seven hundred beds left. We are only sorry that there were not seven hundred more good people like you to occupy those beds.

THE PRESIDENT: They are coming to-day.

MR. FAIRCHILD: The President says they are coming to-day. I hope they will, but I hope there will not be seven hundred and one. Mr. President: I can only add to what has been so well said, and what I think you have heard on every hand in the city, a most hearty welcome. We are very glad you came. We hope you will be happy; we hope you will be comfortable; and we hope you will go away from us feeling kindly towards us, for we shall send you away—we shall not send you away, but we shall be obliged to let you go away, because you can not stay always, with the kindest, proudest feelings towards you.

[*Music by Leuder's Band.*]

THE PRESIDENT: *Ladies and Gentlemen:* Before the National Association adjourned last year at Saratoga we had in our possession telegraphic despatches from at least three important authorities in Wisconsin inviting us to hold our next meeting in Madison. One of those came from the State Teachers' Association; others came from the Educational authorities of the city and State; and from that day to this they have ceased not to apply themselves with urgency to our coming, and to put forth every effort for our best good and our highest pleasure while here. Among those who have distinguished themselves is the State Superintendent of Public Instruction, Hon. Robert Graham, who I hope is present and will say a word to us in behalf of the State authorities. In his absence, I will

introduce the vice-Superintendent, and I wish to say a word concerning his valuable and distinguished services in our behalf during this year. It was he who welcomed me to Madison when I first came here, in the absence of the State Superintendent, and it is he who has stood at the post of duty from that time until this in the most arduous labors for our gratification and for the success of this great meeting. And let me tell a little more, which he perhaps in his modesty would prefer that I would not mention. He said, "We will give you our deeds as the guaranty of our word, and we will urge upon our teachers such an interest in your association that at least five hundred dollars shall come into your treasury from life-memberships in the State of Wisconsin" Ladies and gentlemen: that pledge has been more than fulfilled, and through the efforts of him whom I am now to introduce to you, seconded so nobly by the great band of educators of Wisconsin, fifty life-memberships, of twenty dollars each, have been put into the treasury of the National Educational Association. Wisconsin is to-day the Banner State. She holds the palm, and we will give her the palm before this meeting is over in some more substantial form. I have the pleasure of introducing to you the Honorable W. H. Chandler, of Madison, Wisconsin, who said to me at one time, "The hospitalities of the State of Wisconsin are so flexible, we will open our doors so wide, that the whole country may come here." His heart is large; his house is large, and he will show you how large his interest is in the work of education.

ADDRESS OF HON. W. H. CHANDLER.

Mr. President, Ladies and Gentlemen: There remains but a single word of this general character to say in regard to our welcome of you to our State and to our city and to our hearts. From the placid waters of our great lake on the east to the Father of Waters on the west, from the intangible line that divides and separates us from a sister State on the south to the superior waters of that inland sea which spread from the British possessions on the north, Wisconsin to-day is stirred with a great and an unusual joy. Our fair State has put on her garments of promise and of hope. Our barns already are burdened with the weight and the fragrance of our earlier harvest. Our steeds and our machines stand restlessly by the field waiting for the ripening of the later products, and eager for the fray. In all our borders there is a great stirring in our industrial interest. Five thousand axe-men in our forests have for a time suspended their labors there and transferred them to other fields of activity. Our rivers are filled with the products of the forest, and they are being floated to those great and magnificent mills which by day and by night, by sunlight and by electric light, are converting these products into the merchantable ones of lumber and lath and shingles. Our miners are delving in the chambers of the earth and bringing forth the treasures of centuries, of lead and of iron. Our factories are buzzing with the whirl of spindles and of looms. Our mechanics of every description are full of labor and full of encouragement. But these are not the things that are stirring unusual joy in our people to-day. We have a beautiful home. There is no pestilence in our air. Our homes have not been desolated by floods, as those of other states have been. No desolating and cyclonic storm has swept over our borders leaving devastation and death and destruction in its path. These things are not the things, however, that are stirring our joy to-day. These are the things that we always have and are constantly enjoying, and, while we thank Almighty God for these beautiful homes, for these great benefits and exemptions, I say again it is not these by which our hearts are being stirred to-day. What, then, you will ask me, is it which

causes this thrilling and throbbing of interest throughout your commonwealth? Your presence, your work, your courtesy and recognition. It is true we invited you to come to our state. It is true that various classes of our citizens bade you come and welcome. We have redeemed our pledge in this respect. I hold in my hand a list of life-memberships which have been proposed to this organization. These are cold, dry, dead statistics, but behind them, sir, there is a history instinct with life and with power, and I want to tell you two or three of these. We have gathered these from sixteen counties in the State. No little junta of men around the Capitol Park have incited this interest and put themselves forward for this honor and these positions. They have come from sixteen counties in the State, and the neighboring village of Chicago has one. The business colleges of this State are represented by one member. The normal schools in this State are represented by eleven members. The boards of education in the cities of this State are represented by six members. The universities and colleges of our State are represented by three members. The board of regents of normal schools is represented by one member. Seven associations of teachers are represented here, each with a single member. The teachers of the State, of their own motion, individually, selecting from their own number, are represented by nine memberships, and even the school boys and the school girls in the streets have caught the infection of this enthusiasm, and they have brought in their pennies, their nickels, and their dimes with which to constitute eight of their principal teachers, memberships in this association, representing a withdrawal of one hundred and sixty dollars from the candy and confectionery shops and placing it in your treasury. We have two miscellaneous memberships, one of which I have told you of as coming from an unimportant village near our borders, and the other is our honored Governor, J. M. Rusk. You ask me further why our interests have been thus stirred from end to end and from side to side of our grand State. Let me tell you in a word and relieve your patience. Wisconsin has no history. The men of this generation that are now in active life have made this State what it is. They have made from this virgin soil, untrodden by the feet of white men until they came, a State dotted over by beautiful farms. They have turned these primeval forests into fields of industry and profitable labor. They have taken possession of these water-courses and made them the channels of intercourse and of business. They have conceived and carried forward these great enterprises of labor and of commerce and of education; they have established this State university and nursed it, and cared for it through the infantile period. They have established a system of normal schools, endowing it with a million and a quarter of dollars capital. They have built up a great system of graded and high schools in the State, and above all and best of all and most important of all they have dotted six thousand common schools all over the face of our fair commonwealth. Now, sir, this has been done with great labor, with great effort. We have been obliged to come sometimes to these halls of legislation, and sometimes with suppliant knee and yet more suppliant voice have begged of these to give us our birthright for ourselves and our children. Sometimes we have prevented the watches of the night in constructing arguments why they should give us what we asked, and again we have come with the boldness, and perhaps the impudence, of men who were confident they were right, and threatened that unless assured of the gift we sought we would hurl them from their positions of power, as the great father of politics and politicians is said to have been hurled from higher battlements above. By hook and by crook, by fair means and by some other means, we have generally obtained what we asked. I only regret we have not asked for more. As I say, the people of this generation that came from the east and from the south have made this State. We have come to our manhood now. We have passed the meridian of life. We are conscious that presently we must pass over this labor to others, and we are looking forward with a serene and satisfied expectation to the time when we may retire to our household and to the council chambers and spend in retirement the evening of our days; but we have had one strong and constant and irrepressible desire for one other thing ere we pass from this stage of action, and this is that which stirs our hearts to-day. We have been exceedingly anxious, sir, that in some formal manner, in some great public way, in some recognized form, this coming generation, this generation of our love, this generation of our hope, should have a christening day, a baptismal day, and we have invited you and your associates to come and baptize our child to-day. We do not ask now that you shall have any tenderness in your laying on of hands. We do not care for a mere sprinkling of diluted platitudes. We ask that you will pour upon these men and maidens that represent this coming generation your spirit; that you will lead them into

the great deeps of power in your reflective and your investigating and your enquiring attitude. We ask you to take them and show them the length and breadth and the greatness of this universal thing, universal education. And now this day and this hour is upon us. You have come at our bidding; you are here for the ceremony. We present you this child and heir of this generation soon to pass away, and we ask that ere you depart you shall leave such an impress upon it that it shall take up this work and excel, far excel its father in its effort and its success. They tell us, sir, that on the border of your eastern sea they are laying the foundation deep and wide and strong for a great pedestal, upon which ere long there shall surmount a noble statue, from whose uplifted hand there shall flame a torch perpetually shedding forth its light as a symbol of liberty lighting the world. During all these years of your history, you and yours have been laying the foundation of another pedestal and the uprearing of another monument, and it is our supreme and our unspeakable joy to-day to be permitted to unite with these from north and south, from east and west, and add another section to this uplifting monolith that shall, not only from its apex, but from window and from oriole, from translucent side and from all its parts, shed forth that flame,—that light whose beams shall reach the utmost bounds of earth, and by whose light all nations shall learn to read and heed the legend, "Morality, education, industry; these are the triple elements, the triune substances, that assure a nation's greatness, a nation's strength, and a nation's perpetuity."

THE PRESIDENT: In reference to the ceremony referred to by our friend, Mr. Chandler, I would say that the High Priests are here; you seem to have plenty of water; the only question now is whether you will have the child sprinkled or dipped. You have the reputation out here, I suppose, of being pretty honest people. I do not know that you have ever been charged with being Star Routers or anything of that sort, or of making any depredations upon the general government and its treasury; but you have been drawing upon a great treasure house which has been depleted very severely by your draughts. I will not say that you have been stealing, but you have drawn the strength of manhood and womanhood from the East to people this great State of Wisconsin. You have taken her bright boys and girls out here to make these grand men and women, to build up here a great commonwealth which shall be the glory of this Northwest. You have taken of our riches of all sorts and kinds to build your colleges and your various institutions, and I shall now call upon one who is regarded as one of our choicest treasures, whom you came to New England for, calling him here to your capital city and placing him over your great University established so nobly and beneficently, and we welcome him, to give the welcome for you and for the State in its higher education. I have the pleasure of introducing to you Hon. John Bascom, President of the University of Wisconsin.

ADDRESS OF PRESIDENT BASCOM.

Mr. President and members of the National Educational Association: It has been assigned me as my pleasant duty, in behalf of the higher institutions of learning in the State of Wisconsin, to welcome those who represent kindred institutions in other portions of our blessed land. We have here bright men and bright women from all the States, east and west, north and south. We know this by the foretaste of our knowledge, and we know it by the spirit of prophecy and intuition that is in us.

You come to us full of knowledge, full of high incentives. We shall sit, so far as the duties of our hospitality will allow it, very willingly at your feet for instruction. We are only at fault as to the kind of return that we shall be able to make to you in point of interest and instruction. We at the West appropriate very freely the gifts of Heaven, and, on the whole, they are our best gifts. We invite you, therefore, freely to enter into the light of these skies that are above us, into the pleasure of this rolling landscape that is about you, into the beauty of these lakes that surround us, to have and to hold all that is not covered by our title deeds, and very little indeed is covered by them. We invite you also to enter heartily into the enthusiasm of the position that we occupy. The State of Wisconsin is interlaced by the upper waters of the Mississippi. It is a portion of that great continental valley that is buttressed on the right by the Rocky Mountains, and on the left by the Allegheny Mountains, and is fringed by the sea-coast States. We welcome you to this continental valley which has been reserved in the history of the world to mark an epoch in civilization, a valley that shall be occupied by a population of more wealth, more intelligence, and, we trust, of more happiness than has yet found place on the surface of the earth. One of our guests requested that he or she might be placed in a typical western household. Now we invite you all to a typical western State. Wisconsin is a characteristic state in several particulars. It has had the same rapidity of development that characterizes the Northwest, the same variety of nationalities and even somewhat more than the usual variety of interests. There are three points in our educational institutions to which I venture to direct your attention. The first is that our education is somewhat more organic, somewhat more complete within itself than the education that is found in all of our states, more especially in the older states, and, we owe this fact, not so much to any peculiar wisdom on our part as to the circumstances which have surrounded us. These states have grown up rapidly, and the higher education has grown up under the fostering hand of the state and the United States in connection with primary and intermediate education, and hence it happens that the three are more closely united than is common in the older states. I do not know of half a dozen Colleges or Universities in these states which have the same number of students in their college course from the state itself that the University of Wisconsin has. It stands among the first institutions in this one particular, in the number of those belonging to the state that are gathered within its college courses. Four-fifths of our students come to us direct from our High Schools. Another point to which I invite your attention is that classical and scientific education is more closely united with us than usual in the older states, and for reasons similar to those I have given. In the older states the claim for higher education found the colleges preoccupied with classical work, and therefore in many cases, by way of self-defence, they have established for themselves scientific and technical schools. The two forms of education have come up with us hand in hand, and we find them both united in our Colleges and Universities, and thus we have been able to secure a degree of symmetry, a degree of proportion, which we might not have otherwise attained to. I ask attention to but one other point. Not only have we reached a point of organic unity and symmetry which are desirable in education, but we have come even-handed to our citizens. Our higher institutions are almost universally institutions of co-education. The University of Wisconsin during the past ten years has sent out over a hundred young women, graduates of that institution. Now I wish to say to some of my Eastern friends, with whom I discussed this question somewhat warmly before I came West that this is in and of itself an exceedingly significant fact. Society in these Western States will ultimately be greatly modified by this circumstance that its youth are educated together, that they have the same line of instruction, and they go out together to meet the duties of life. A gentleman walking with a lad asked of him, "Who is that man in front of you?" The lad replied, "He is my father. Don't you know him? I know him just as easy." Now this is our condition in the West in connection with co-education; we know it "just as easy" and manage it just as readily as the boy knew his father. We are only surprised when we hear inquiries from the East concerning the possibilities of this method. Ladies and gentlemen, men and women, bright and beautiful, beautiful and bright, we give you a hearty welcome to Wisconsin.

THE PRESIDENT: *Ladies and Gentlemen*: I have been trying to exhaust the hospitalities of Madison and Wisconsin, and by the attempt have almost exhausted myself. It is inexhaustible I find. At any rate, so far

my attempt has proven it to be so. Your Excellency, the Governor, Your Honor, the Mayor, and the other gentlemen who have addressed us : I wish to thank you on behalf of this association for the very eloquent and cordial words you have given us. They were in the air, floating about our ears and sounding through our whole hearts, before we came to your city, or before we saw your State, and the best evidence that we appreciate it is the fact that we have come in such magnificent numbers to enjoy it. This great company is the best assurance that we believed that Madison and Wisconsin has a body and a heart large enough to receive all these educators, representatives of every State and of every Territory, and of every grade of instruction throughout this great country, and we have come here to find that your hospitalities are large and full and free ; like your prairies, they are almost boundless, like the horizon stretching out before us to an almost unlimited extent, and we thank you for this greatness of heart and this liberality of spirit that has opened your doors as well as your hearts, that has consecrated to our service this whole State for the benefit of this great National Association. In fact your scenery, this beautiful air, these lovely lakes, all that we have seen in our travels through the West, have been to us a source of welcome and inspiration, and as we meet here to-day to touch hands and hearts with this noble band of educators of the Northwest, so ably represented by our friends Mr Chandler and Dr. Bascom, who have spoken to us, we are moved to great depths of feeling by the friendliness of the relationship which cements and binds us together. You are something like a little Kentuckian who said that his live weight was a hundred pounds, but when he was mad he weighed a ton. So it is with the citizens of Wisconsin. Your live weight may be a hundred pounds, but when you attempt to show us your liberality and your spirit you weigh tons, and we are glad to come to realize to some extent this generosity of welcome which you have accorded to us. In fact the happiest man I have seen is the man who has stowed away four thousand teachers, and he was at the depot yesterday looking for "more worlds to conquer."

You, therefore, Your Excellency, and ladies and gentlemen, have the credit and the honor, and the glory, it may be, of having set in motion, through your large-hearted invitations and the splendid opportunities afforded us here, forces and influences which stir the heart of this Nation from its centre to its circumference, and shall send forward a great national movement from this meeting which shall uplift and build up an educational sentiment truer and deeper and more lively than has ever been felt on this continent before. If this object is consummated, how the hearts of the members of this association will be delighted, and how the educational work of this country shall advance with great rejoicing. These homes of Madison, these beautiful scenes, this park and this capitol, all are ours for our enjoyment for these few days. and there are other blessings far beyond. This is but the doorway. We have just entered the portico

of this magnificent mansion of the Northwest. Oh! how grand it is. What its present is you perceive. What its future shall be your imagination and mine cannot conceive. How grand to have the men and women from the East come up to see this lively representation of the grandest work of our republic. How grand to have the men and women of the East, the more conservative forces of our country, come up here to be enlivened and enlightened by the progressive spirit which fills and thrills every heart and nerve of this great system of republics of the Northwest. And how grand it is that we may come here together as brethren and sisters in this great educational movement, to be ourselves lifted a little higher toward that eminence on which God stands.

Brethren, receive these congratulations from our friends, and further we return to you, dear friends, the heartiest sympathies, the bursting sympathies of our heart for what you have done for us. No other city in this land, I am sure, could have done what Madison has done. No other State could have done it and our thanks are due to you, Your Excellency. You met me with open arms and a ready palm and a Western grip, and you said, "Come, and bring your forces with you." You discounted me a little when I told you we might have 1500 or 2000 people here, and I hardly dared promise you what I thought might come. I had to stand on a very difficult platform when I came here, promising a little, knowing what might be, but hoping for the grandest meeting of educators ever held on this continent. Our expectations are realized, and I hope that you are gratified; that our efforts have been satisfactory and a pleasure to you, as well as a delight to us. Without further remarks on this occasion, I take pleasure in introducing to you some of our members who will respond more fittingly than I can to your grand and noble words. The National Association was formed in 1857. We have some of its fathers here to-day. In fact the man who wrote the first call for the first meeting sits on the platform by my side, and I have the pleasure of introducing to you, Dr. D. B. Hagar, not the man who wrote the Declaration of American Independence, but the man who wrote the declaration of independence for the National Teachers' Association of the United States, Dr. D. B. Hagar, of Salem, Mass., than whom no one can more fittingly respond to these words of welcome from our friends of the Northwest.

DR. HAGAR: *Ladies and Gentlemen*: Fortunately for me, and more fortunately for you, the President has not called upon me to make a speech. He has simply asked me to read a call for a convention of teachers to form an educational association. It happens that I have in my hand the original copy of the call which was put forth in 1857 calling for an assembly of teachers in the city of Philadelphia. I think it no more than just to a well-known educator of the state of New York that I refer to him as the man who first conceived the plan of forming a national association. I refer to James W. Valentine who for many years was a teacher of a grammar school in the city of Brooklyn. At that time he was the president of the New York State Teachers' Association. He wrote to me suggesting that there ought to be a summons for a national meeting of teachers. He wrote also to presidents of state associ-

ations throughout the country asking them to join with him in organizing a national association. That call was responded to favorably by only nine of the Presidents of the several State associations. The larger portion of those Presidents did not believe it practicable to organize such a body, and they declined to sign the call. But nine were willing to attach their names to the call. I have been requested to read, as a matter of historical interest, the call that was put forth in 1857. [A copy of the original document may be found in the President's address which follows.] This call is dated May 15, 1857. In accordance with that call a number of gentlemen assembled in Philadelphia for the purpose of considering whether it were expedient or not to organize the proposed association. The meeting was very small in numbers. I remember that our first meeting was held in the Common Council Room of the city of Philadelphia, and there was ample room in that Council Room for more than were present. But very few assembled at that time had any great faith in the success of the proposed enterprise, and few only were in earnest. Four of the gentlemen then present are here with us to-day. Many looked on and said, "It is impossible. The interests of the different parts of the country are so various, and in some respects so contrary that it will be impossible to harmonize them so as to form a successful body." The babe that was born there in Philadelphia started into life looking rather sickly. Many prophesied its early death. But that babe grew into stalwart proportions, and now, at the age of 27 years, it has grown so large that it needs more room, and so it has come out into this great northwestern region to get a chance to grow. I do not care to detain you longer. So many emotions come to my mind as I contrast that first meeting with this greatest of educational meetings that I have no words at command to express those emotions. I can only say in conclusion, when I consider from how small a spark this great educational flame has grown, "Behold how great a matter a little fire kindleth."

THE PRESIDENT: *Ladies and Gentlemen*: I have shown you the writer of our declaration. I now present to you Dr. Richards, of Washington, first President of the Association, one of the most distinguished and prominent teachers in the country.

DR. ZALMON RICHARDS: *Ladies and Gentlemen*: I suppose President Bicknell wants to present the first nurse of that babe born in Philadelphia. So he has been a nurse, and if some of you had passed through the first three years of the history of the National Association you would have seen that the nurse had something to do. When the first annual meeting was held in Cincinnati, five members only were present to grace the ceremonies on that occasion, one sitting in that part of a large audience, another here, another there, who has gone to his grave, and another by my side, with a company of fine, noble gentlemen on the platform to speak for us, but within one hour's time one hundred members united themselves with us, and some of them are here upon the platform to speak for themselves.

THE PRESIDENT: I have presented to you one of the fathers. You have seen the nurse. Now I am going to present to you one of the god-fathers, Dr. Pickard, of Iowa.

DR. PICKARD: *Mr. President and Ladies and Gentlemen*: I can conceive of but two reasons for calling me out on this occasion. The first is that I may show the difference between the depleted East and the full-fledged West. You have been told that the best part of the West has come from the East. You have seen what it has left of the East. Another reason, I suppose, for calling upon me at this time was because of my early acquaintance with a portion of the West. What I knew of the West is all East now, and I do not feel, my friends, like standing here to represent anything but Wisconsin. I cannot do it for the life of me. Nineteen years I resided in this State, and

associated in the early days with the men who have addressed you, riding over the prairies of the West with this good Governor Rusk, with whom I am not ashamed to ride, and another, a representative also of the young life of this State that has appeared before you, with one hand welcoming you, but in that hand a heart as big as is held by both hands of most people. Governor Fairchild was a boy in the University when I first knew this part of Wisconsin. I want to say also, for your comfort, perhaps, that I was instrumental in part in calling the attention of this Association to Wisconsin. Forgive me if I have called it wrong, if I have promised anything for the State and for this city that has not been fulfilled; and yet in the midst of all the joy that appears here, in the midst of all the welcome we have had, in the midst of all the congratulations for the work done, I have just one word of fault to find, and that word is that they have left my bed with only one person in it besides myself. I expected two or three when I came here, and I think that is a somewhat common fault. I want to say also in behalf of those who have been so thoroughly welcoming us that we of the great West, who have come in here to partake of your hospitality, came expecting to be entertained. We came expecting to receive a full welcome, as we have received it. We came also knowing the heart that was in you. We came knowing that the house was small but the heart was large. I recall an incident some twelve years ago in that neighboring village of Chicago where in a small house, simply sufficient for four persons, as we thought, there was brought in one night, when a hundred thousand persons were homeless, a family of eleven people additional to our own, and that family found abundant rest, and how? Why, I would lie down on the floor and go to sleep and be stood up in the corner, and let somebody take my place. That is what you could have done here if you would. Put your guests to sleep and stand them up in a corner, and put somebody else in their beds. I have many a time in this State been put into the bed of a person who had occupied it the first part of the night. We know something about "school sections" in this part of the country. We know how they have been filled with beds and with people lying foot to foot and head to head, lying touching each other so closely that their hands could not kill the mosquitoes without touching somebody else. Now, my good friends, there are grumblers here of course, but they do not mean anything by it; that is only their way of expressing their joy. You know there are a great many people, like Mark Tapley, who are only happy when they are miserable. And those who are thus grumbling are most supremely happy. Take joy then if you are complained of, in the knowledge that this is the best way that some people can express their joy. There are those that would not go into Heaven, I believe, if the angel did not come down with a coach of gold and take them from the gate. There are some perhaps that thought they ought to have been waited on at the depot by some one besides the omnibus. There are some, I know, who feel very happy to be here, and there is nobody any prouder of the work done in the city of Madison, nobody prouder of the work done in the State of Wisconsin, than one who was in it before it became a State, one who travelled across from the lake to the Mississippi River when there was hardly a resting place between the two, one who has known something about the wild prairies and about the fires sweeping over those prairies, who has slept on puncheons, with a horse blanket for a mattress and a buffalo robe for the cover, or the other way, and been invited to breakfast in this way, "Please haul up a cheer and help yourself to such as you love best."

There was not a chair in the house, and what I loved best must have been corned beef or bacon, but I know there was no warmer heart in the State of Wisconsin than that of my host at that time. I am proud of being a guest, and now let me say I am proud of being your host. Welcome all to this State, that I will for the moment take for my own State in the past, and whenever you see fit to go across the Mississippi River into the next State west you shall have just as warm a welcome as you received here, and more room on the prairie. There are not so many lakes there to crowd you.

THE PRESIDENT: The next speaker, father or god-father, or nurse, or what I do not know, is one of our distinguished men, one of the leaders of thought and action in this country and one of the distinguished Presidents of this Association. He is now in the early days of life and we have great hopes as to his future. I have great pleasure in introducing to you Dr. White, of Cincinnati, Ohio.

DR. WHITE: The hearty and eloquent words of his Excellency the Governor, and the other representatives of this great Commonwealth and this beautiful city have stirred me with uncommon emotion, but there is in this occasion an eloquence that cannot be put into words. There is a thought in such a body as this, gathered under such circumstances that no human language can express, and it is the eloquence of this occasion, it is the circumstances under which we have met this morning that have stirred me with the deepest emotion and have aroused in my mind the most stirring, the most promising thoughts. Just as we sit and stand here the mind goes back fifty years when this grand commonwealth had no word of welcome, had no great people or city, but was silent with the thought and the purpose of God, who spread out this rolling country, who fashioned this great valley of the Mississippi for His grand designs and who looks down on us this morning seeing in part the accomplishment of that great purpose; and this occasion speaks with a voice that comes from the very throne of Omnipotence, and from the mind and heart of Him who has brought this nation into being, and who is guiding it for great purposes for the good of man. And now the thought that comes out of this is, why are we here, and why this hearty welcome of teachers and these educators of the country? Is it because the education which is here represented touches the material prosperity of this great nation, because the school-master, by the creation of wealth, is belting this continent with roads and bridges of iron, is filling it with cities and homes that are blessed with ease and comfort and satisfaction such as no other people ever enjoyed? Is it that these schools are touching with beneficent power the industrial prosperity and wealth of this great nation? Is this the significance of this hour. If these schools did nothing else they would be worthy of the welcome of this occasion, but, as I read it, there is a higher purpose. Is this occasion significant because this occasion which is here embodied and is here represented is making possible the perpetuity of this great nation of ours? Is it because these teachers are laying the foundations of civil liberty in this land so firmly that generations to come shall rest securely thereon? Is it because the perpetuity of this grand heritage of our fathers is dependent on the work of these teachers? Is that the instinct and full significance of this occasion? If it were, it would be sufficient to account for it all, for this grand nation of ours has a function and a purpose in history that is worthy of all the effort that is being made in education, and in every other form, for perpetuating and establishing it securely on its foundation. In 1820, in that remarkable centennial address at Plymouth Rock, Webster laid down three conditions for the perpetuity of the American Republic. These conditions were, universal education, universal religious training, and the proper division of landed property. And the schools of this country are aiming certainly to realize the first of those conditions. And so out of that fact alone, this occasion would have significance. But, my friends, what is this country? What are these institutions, and what is this material wealth, but a means to a sublimer end, and that end is *man*. This people are higher than their institutions, and their institutions have meaning because they contribute to the worth and glory of this country. And so in welcoming this great body of teachers here today, we are welcoming those who are doing more than touching material wealth with power; more than those who are laying the foundations of civil liberty in this land and fortifying it against all enemies within and all enemies without. We are welcoming those who are touching with beneficent power that for which these homes and wealth exist and that for which this Republic is established, a great people, whose life and whose work transcend all institutions and all material things. You are welcoming those who look upon these boys and girls as the richest inheritance of God, and whose sublimest duty it is to fashion them into men and into women with the thought of God stirring their hearts and the purpose of God leading them to a true manhood and a true life. These teachers are not making artisans as their chief purpose. They are not training soldiers, they are not training citizens; they are making men and women, and fashioning them and culturing them toward the image of God in which we are all created, and to this sublime work this great West calls anew. And we here would consecrate this great body of educators to this sublime work, and make this generation of children in our schools go out from these schools, not only with skilled hands and healthy bodies, and loyalty to country and purpose to defend the rights of the people to the end, but make them go out with hearts pure, with minds widened and ennobled, and with a consecration to all that is true and good and beautiful in human life. May this generation of children take up this heritage which has passed to them and make it wiser and better than it has been. Now the great West summons this great body of teachers, not only for the highest glory of the country, but for the uplifting of the people and the blessing of the world, and that highest function is the forming of right

character in the young. Character is better than culture, is better than skill. It is that which saves all and blesses everything; and character in the next generation will put sunshine in our political sky, will bless our social life, will remove all doubts and troubles, and leave this great people serene in the conscious power of true manhood and true womanhood. To that work you welcome us, and in that spirit we receive the welcome. Into our hearts we draw this hour an inspiration that shall burn till we drop our work and report unto Him who can give us our reward and measure our labors in love.

THE PRESIDENT: I cannot close this exercise without introducing to you one whom we all delight to honor as our Executive at the National Capitol, who, as the great leader of our educational forces through this country, has stood at that post, I believe, for nearly fifteen years, a man who is doing a noble work for the North and the South, the East and the West, whom we are glad to have honor us with his presence to-day; I have the pleasure of introducing to you the Hon. John Eaton, LL. D., Commissioner of Education of the United States.

GEN. EATON: *Mr. President and Teachers of fifty-four millions of Americans:* I have been present on various public occasions of welcome when I thought the welcome was overdone. I have not thought so on this occasion. These words may have seemed to some extravagant. They have not seemed so to me. Who are these that I see welcomed here to-day? Here is the teacher who has fitted more young men for college than any other living man in America. Here are the college Presidents from the experience of one year up to that of thirty or forty. You have seen the founders of this Association. Here are the State Superintendents, the City Superintendents, of great systems moulding the generation that is, and in the hands of men who are here that you have welcomed have been moulded many of the public men that have been the actors in our day and the leaders in our affairs. Nay, I tell you this hearty welcome is not extravagant for this occasion. And now what shall I say? What can be added? I am in the situation of the young student in the deaf and dumb examination. The answers were written on the black-board, and two had written, and now came the third; what could he do? The subject had been fully treated. He could only go to his assigned place and write "ditto." I write ditto to all that has been said, and I wish to add that while I have been here listening to these words one controlling impulse has prevailed within me, and that is to rush down and shake the hand of some familiar officer or teacher. I have desired that this body of teachers should not only hear these great thoughts moved by these great considerations, but that they should know each other; that no teacher in this great number should go away without becoming acquainted with every other one here. I have noticed a group of College Presidents moving about among themselves not knowing each other. I have seen other eminent public educators similarly situated. Let every one become acquainted; and I wish at the proper time to have the President appoint a committee of one from each State who shall appoint five associates to introduce every body to every body, that every body may take the entire impulse of this occasion back to his State, back to his City, back to his school-room, back to his point of labor with the illiteracy and ignorance of the country; for while it is a grand moment, a grand occasion, the greatest assemblage of teachers that ever convened in this country, a fact that shall mark this as a year of note in the history of education, a fact that together with another—that the United States Senate debated the subject of education for three weeks, shall add to the honors of the year. May we hope that out of this occasion there shall flow impulses and influences to make the year still more distinguished by securing similar action from the House of Representatives, and then this year shall stand out as noted for this great teachers' assembly, for this debate and action of the Senate, and for the passage of a measure through Congress that shall carry light into all the darkness of the land and hope and courage to every teacher.

THE PRESIDENT: I have a very interesting announcement to make. **Friends of the Association:** I have the honor and pleasure of stating that our distinguished friend, His Excellency Gov. Rusk, in the nobleness of his heart, to add to the other great hospitalities we have received, invites this Association as a body to his residence on Thursday evening for a reception, to be introduced to him, to his family, to each other.

DR. TAPPAN: I move that the President and Secretary return formal thanks to the Governor for his kind invitation, and express our intention to accept it.

Which motion was carried.

[*Music by Leuder's Band.*]

PRESIDENT BICKNELL then delivered the annual address before the Association.

THE PRESIDENT'S ADDRESS.

THE ANNUAL ADDRESS BEFORE THE NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF THE UNITED STATES, AT MADISON, WIS., JULY 18, 1884.

BY THOMAS W. BICKNELL, LL.D.

This great assemblage of teachers, which may be a memorable one, meets on historic ground. We are in the midst of what was formerly styled the Northwest Territory. Its boundaries in 1784, a century ago, were the Great Lakes on the North; on the east, the lakes and the Ohio River; the Ouabash or Ohio River on the south, and the Mississippi on the west. It belonged to the thirteen infant States, which guarded its eastern frontier. On the south, lay the Territory of Tennessee, to which the Whites and Indians held disputed rights. On the west, Spain held possession of the Territory of Louisiana, which extended from the Gulf of Mexico to the sources of the Mississippi, and on the north, Great Britain claimed the territory and government. It was a splendid possession, originally claimed by several of the States as lying within their charter limits, which extended from ocean to ocean, but ceded to the United States by the several claimants for the common benefit.

ORDINANCE OF 1787.

During the year 1787 the Congress of the United States passed an ordinance which has become famous. It provided for the government of the Northwest Territory, as it was called, until certain designated parts should possess sixty thousand inhabitants, when they were to be admitted as States. It also provided, at a time when each of the old thirteen States held slaves by statutory law, and there were no less than 600,000 in the country, or one slave in five of the population, that slavery or involuntary servitude, except for crime, should be forever prohibited therefrom. While, therefore, every foot of land east and south of the Ohio River has been cursed by human slavery, and every State in that great territory is responsible for that institution, it may proudly be declared that the Northwest Territory has always been, and always shall be, the land of the free, and that the foot of no man has ever trod its soil as a slave.

COMMON SCHOOLS ENDOWED.

While this prohibitory legislation was of vital importance to the settlement, growth, and prosperity of the several States to be carved out of this new empire of the Northwest, there were positive enactments which have made their action memorable, and the actors distinguished as statesmen, among whom were Washington, Jefferson, Sherman, Madison, Monroe, Hamilton, Morris, and others of lesser fame. The two ordinances of the government of the Northwestern Territory, enacted in 1785 and 1787, set apart section sixteen of every township for maintaining public schools, and as a justification for such a generous and sovereign gift, this memorable declaration was instituted for the benefit of posterity: "Religion, morality, and knowledge being necessary to good government and the happiness of mankind, schools and the means of education shall be forever encouraged." It has not been unusual for kings and conquerors to grant title-deeds of vast estates to enrich their favorites, but when in history has it been known that legislators have bestowed such princely fortunes, not on titled greatness, but on the handmaids of freedom,—religion, morality, and knowledge?

SUPPORT OF HIGHER EDUCATION.

But the fathers of this great commonwealth of States, only one-third of which as now, being then born, looked beyond the common school as one of the essential needs of free States, and with a wisdom which puts to shame much of the public discussion of our day relative to higher education, provided that two complete townships of lands were to be given perpetually for the purposes of a university; and in full compliance with this provision, two townships have been given to every State organized since the commencement of the present century. Ohio, the first State admitted to the Union from this celebrated territory, has been fortunate enough to acquire three townships,—one while as a territory, and two on her admission to the Union in 1802; while Florida and Wisconsin each have received four. The States which have received the sixteenth section only are Louisiana, Indiana, Mississippi, Illinois, Alabama, Maine, Missouri, Arkansas, Michigan, Iowa, and Texas, the last of which was admitted to the Union in 1848.

FURTHER GRANTS FOR EDUCATION.

In the same year that Wisconsin was admitted as a State, Oregon was organized as a territory, and Congress made further provisions for the maintenance of common schools, setting apart the sixteenth

and the thirty-sixth sections of each township for their support ; so that all the States admitted since 1848 have received the benefit of the two sections donated for common school education. These States are California, Minnesota, Oregon, Kansas, Nebraska, and Nevada.

Were it a part of our present purpose, we could show the added generosity of the Government in its later legislation by which several States, notably those admitted to the Union since 1849, have received an aggregate of 75,000,000 acres of land, which have been in the main honestly devoted to the purposes of popular education, and now constitute an accumulated permanent school fund, in eighteen States, of \$50,000,000. From the Northwest Territory, which so early received the notable considerations of such wise legislation and munificent benefactions, have been formed five great States,—Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Michigan, Wisconsin, and a part of a sixth, Minnesota, which was admitted to the Union in 1857, the same year that the National Educational Association was formed at Philadelphia.

THE EAST AND THE WEST ONE.

It may be incidentally noted, in passing, that two other agencies have fostered and established in these great States of the Central West and Northwest excellent systems of free schools, covering the whole field of the primary school and the college. To the enlightened liberality of the legislator have been added the intelligence, enterprise, and high moral character of the founders and settlers of these empire States. The chief concern of these men of New England and Eastern birth and extraction, was to build on good foundations for the future. Hence the school-house, and a proper tax for its support, have been the first stones laid in town and county organization. A community without a school is an anomaly on the prairies or in the forests of what was the Northwest Territory, while two of the States born of that generation, Michigan and Wisconsin, have the leading universities of the West as State institutions.

THE WESTERN COLLEGE OF TEACHERS, 1831.

Another agency, to which too little public attention has been called, was the Western Literary Institute and College of Teachers, formed in Ohio in 1831,¹ and whose influence has been powerful in moulding the educational systems of these States. When emigration first began to set westward from New England, New York, and Pennsylvania, it was of vast importance that some agency should aid in the establishment of schools, and give wise direction in their control.

¹ *Annals*, pp. 427-8.

From this college of teachers went forth instruction, by addresses and printed pages, which helped the new settlers to fashion new systems without the errors of the old. State superintendencies, school funds, county taxes, boards of education, were the subjects which this college discussed and urged before the people; and although that body has ceased to exist, its works do follow in the almost universal establishment of a system of schools founded on the only proper unit of classification and of organization, namely, that of the county. An eminent gentleman who attended the annual session of the college of teachers at Cincinnati, in October, 1834, just fifty years ago, leaves the following memoranda of that meeting: "I was deeply impressed while attending the session of the College of Teachers, with the influence that body is to put forth upon the Nation, and more surprised than I can express at the progress education is making in the West. The convention was composed chiefly of Western men, who have made teaching a profession, from the common school to the university. A good many speeches were made and papers read by persons little known, which would have done credit to Horace Mann, John C. Spencer, or Beriah Green, who are now revolutionizing the East. Of course the great attraction was the elaborate address of Thomas S. Grimke, of South Carolina, the elegant scholar, the magnanimous philanthropist. The day after delivering that noble address, while on his way to visit a brother, an eminent State judge of Ohio, he was suddenly seized with Asiatic cholera, now fearfully malignant in this region, and taken from the stage-coach to die. What a loss to the cause of education! He was a great and good man; a reformer without fanaticism; a revolutionist without the slightest tendency to anarchy; a Christian without sectarianism; abhorring slavery without hating the slaveholder."¹

THE AMERICAN INSTITUTE OF INSTRUCTION, 1830.

The American Institute of Instruction, national as its name suggests, antedates the college by a single year, and is now hale and hearty at the age of fifty-four years. That its work may be associated with that of the College of Preceptors in the West, permit me to give a brief word as to the formation of that influential body of teachers; for, as the political history of our country took shape and got momentum from the gatherings of the colonies in their associated action, so will it be found to be true that all the great advances in educational work and reform date from the formation of our State and general associations. In fact, the needs of the hour and the

¹ C. Edwards Lester. Note Book, MSS.

pressing urgency of great measures created the necessity for the Institute and the College.

In March, 1830, a meeting of teachers was held in Boston to consider and discuss the condition of educational concerns, and a resolution was passed "to form a permanent association of persons engaged and interested in the business of instruction." A committee was raised to draft a constitution and make the preliminary arrangements for the organization. But one of that committee, Hon. Henry K. Oliver, of Salem, is still living.

The committee followed their instructions and extended a call for a meeting to be held in the Representatives Hall in the State House, in Boston, Aug 19, 1830. Fifteen States were represented by over two hundred persons, chiefly teachers, and as a measure of their zeal, we have to relate that they travelled from the remote parts of our land by stage-coach, and remained in session five days, during which time the American Institute of Instruction was given an existence. Francis Wayland, President of Brown University, Providence, R. I., was elected its first president, and Gideon F. Thayer, of Boston, first secretary. The first vote passed was to the effect that all prefixes and affixes, excepting only such as designate the Presidents and Professors of colleges, should be removed from the lists of officers chosen, and the officers henceforth have been designated by the democratic title, "Mr." Until the year 1836, the public were rigidly excluded from attendance upon meetings. Efforts to open the doors to the public were unsuccessful until, on motion of Mr. Thayer, at the meeting at Lowell, the second held outside of Boston, the citizens of that city were invited to attend. Since that time the attendance at the Institute has been uniformly large, and the membership to date numbers over 4,000 persons, mostly teachers, and representing more than half the States of the Union. Of the fifty-four meetings, previous to the present, twenty-three have been held in Massachusetts, five in Maine, ten in New Hampshire, five in Vermont, three in Rhode Island, five in Connecticut, and three in New York. Until the formation of the National Teachers' Association in 1858, it was the only general association of teachers in the country, and the name American was given it as expressive of its character as a leading representative of the American system, as well as the New England ideas of education. During the fifty-five years of its life, over four hundred lectures and addresses have been made by men and women of experience and culture on topics connected with the work of the common schools, and normal schools, and the colleges.

PURPOSE AND INFLUENCE OF THE INSTITUTE AND THE COLLEGE.

In the formation of these Associations, which have had so powerful an influence in stimulating and directing the educational sentiment and action of the country, the main-spring was "*combined and concentrated action*" for an approved condition of American education. Here and there was an eminent instructor, an excellent school-book, a vigilant and faithful school committee, a distinguished institution, a memorable endowment, or a local arrangement which had justly immortalized its projectors. But there had been no associated action of men, eminent and active in literature, science, and public life; no interchange of views of instructors with reference to methods of instruction, the philosophy of methods, or the practical vehicles of teaching. School committees had acted vigorously, but not in concert. Endowments were conferred with little judgment, and town and state policy was warped and dwarfed by mis-directed and unwise legislation. The pioneer societies I have named,—the one in the East, and the other in "The Far West" of that early day,—sought, (1) To aid parents in the domestic education of their children, or in the establishment of what were then styled infant schools. (2) To aid instructors in the discharge of their duties. (3) To secure the establishment of schools or colleges for the professional training of teachers. To these important subjects Governor Lincoln of Massachusetts, and Governor Clinton of New York had called the attention of the Legislatures of their respective States in their annual messages of 1836. (4) Educational libraries were to be established by these Associations; and (5) school-books were to be improved. Say the founders, "We do not surely lay ourselves open to the imputation of being sanguine when we venture to say that a national uniformity in plans of instruction and in school-books would furnish a bond of common sentiment and feeling stronger than any that could be produced by any other means in the season of early life." Certainly these Sauls are to be reckoned among the true prophets of an educational Israel. These and other motives lead such men as Samuel Lewis, Albert Pickett, T. J. Matthews, W. H. McGuffey, Dr. Joseph Ray, Calvin E. Stowe, O. M. Mitchell, Caroline Lee Hentz, J. H. Perkins, and others in the West, and Henry K. Oliver, George B. Emerson, Gideon F. Thayer Francis Wayland, Horace Mann, Henry Barnard, A. Bronson Alcott, and others in the East, to form these two Associations,—the parents of all younger organizations, greater or lesser, whose lights now enlighten our whole educational world.

THE NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION, 1857.

The National Educational Association, whose twenty-eighth anniversary and twenty-fourth meeting we greet and celebrate, was born in 1856, at Philadelphia, where the Nation itself had its birth, and was of good stock,—national brotherhood, and national unity. The times were those of great political and sectional strife. The repeal of the Missouri Compromise, “bleeding Kansas,” the excitement of the Fremont and Buchanan campaign, the memorable Douglas and Lincoln debate in Illinois, the terrible duel of debate over an irrepressible conflict in our National Congress, occupied the minds of the American people, and educators were not unmindful of their duties and responsibilities. What can we do to unite a distracted people,—what to unify discordant elements,—what to cast oil upon the troubled waters,—what to calm the tempest of personal and sectional passion? Important questions for statesmen, these; equally important for the makers of statesmen.

The two gentlemen most active in the formation of this Association were T. W. Valentine, of Brooklyn, N. Y., recently deceased, then president of the State Teachers’ Association of New York; and Dr. D. B. Hagar, of Salem, Mass., president of the State Teachers’ Association of Massachusetts. The call for the first meeting of what was at first styled the National Teachers’ Association was from the pen of Dr. Hagar :

ORIGINAL CALL.

“The eminent success which has attended the establishment and operations of the several State Teachers’ Associations in this country, is the source of mutual congratulations among all friends of popular education. To the direct agency and the diffused influence of these Associations more, perhaps, than to any other cause, are due the manifest improvement of schools in all their relations, the rapid intellectual and social elevation of teachers as a class, and the vast development of public interest in all that concerns the education of the young.

That the State Associations have already accomplished great good, and that they are destined to exert a still broader and more beneficent influence, no wise observer will deny.

“Believing that what has been done for States by State Associations may be done for the whole country by a National Association, we, the undersigned, invite our fellow-teachers throughout the United States to assemble in Philadelphia on the 26th day of August next, for the purpose of organizing a National Teachers’ Association.

“We cordially extend this invitation to all *practical teachers* in the North, the South, the East, and the West, who are willing to unite in a general effort to promote the educational welfare of our country, by concentrating the wisdom and power of numerous minds, and by

distributing among all, the accumulated experience of all who are ready to devote their energies and contribute their means to advance the dignity, respectability, and usefulness of their calling; and who, in fine, believe that the time has come when the teachers of the Nation should gather into one great Educational Brotherhood.

"As the permanent success of any association depends very much upon the auspices attending its establishment, and the character of the organic laws which it adopts, it is hoped that all parts of the Union will be largely represented at the inauguration of the proposed enterprise."

SIGNERS.

This call, — broad, generous, catholic as the spirit of its originators,—was signed by

T. W. Valentine, President New York State Teachers' Association.

D. B. Hagar, President Massachusetts State Teachers' Assoc.

W. T. Lucky, President Missouri State Teachers' Association.

J. Tenny, President New Hampshire State Teachers' Assoc.

J. G. May, President of Indiana State Teachers' Association.

W. Roberts, President Pennsylvania State Teachers' Association.

C. Pease, President Vermont State Teachers' Association.

D. Franklin Wells, President Iowa State Teachers' Association.

A. C. Spicer, President Wisconsin State Teachers' Association.

FIRST MEETING, 1857.

The call was dated May 15, 1857, and the meeting was held at Philadelphia, August 26, 1857, when James L. Enos, one of the county superintendents of Iowa, was chosen temporary chairman, and William E. Sheldon, of Massachusetts, secretary. Messrs. Hagar of Massachusetts, Cann of Delaware, and Challen of Indiana, were appointed a committee to draft a constitution. The name at first adopted, "The National Teachers' Association," was subsequently changed to "The National Educational Association," in answer to a more liberal provision as to membership. At the outset, as with the American Institute, only gentlemen were admitted to active membership, but the National, coming into existence in a more liberal period, and "being born later in life," adopted an honorary membership-annex for ladies engaged in teaching, an admission to which by a board of gentlemanly directors gave women-teachers "the right of presenting in the form of written essays (to be read by the secretary or any other member whom they may select) their views upon the subjects assigned for discussion."

The rights thus gallantly accorded by the National, and as heartily seconded by the Institute, have not frequently been exercised, through

whose neglect we cannot bear testimony ; and the large opportunity granted to women at the present meeting may be regarded as a confession and penance for past shortcomings.

Nine States were represented at the first meeting, — Delaware, Georgia, Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Massachusetts, Missouri, New York, Pennsylvania, South Carolina, and the District of Columbia, — and thirty-eight members were enrolled. The only regular address was written by William Russell, of Massachusetts, and read by T. W. Valentine, of New York, on *The Importance of the Organization of a National Association of Professional Teachers*. At the first election of officers, Zalmon Richards, of Washington, D. C., was chosen president ; T. W. Valentine, of New York, first vice-president ; J. W. Bulkley, of New York, secretary ; and T. M. Cann, of Delaware, treasurer. The meeting at Cincinnati in 1858 was the first held under the constitution, and seventy-three members were enrolled. President Richards, in his inaugural address, after reciting the causes which led to the formation of the National Association, urged the following important ends to be aimed at in its future work :

1. The union of all teachers (North, South, East, and West) in friendly associated action.
2. The creation of a teaching profession by professional methods.
3. The examination of teachers by competent Examining Boards.
4. The establishment of Departments of Pedagogics in connection with all schools which send out persons to teach.

A NATIONAL BUREAU OF EDUCATION.

5. The establishment of a National Bureau of Education, to be connected with the Department of the Interior at Washington. The establishment of such a central agency for the collection of statistics, the unification of State systems, courses of study, etc., and the interchange of school-documents, seemed of so much importance that President Richards said : “ This is a great and a noble work, and it will require great and noble efforts to accomplish it ; but do I overrate the ability and efficiency of this Association when I say I believe it can accomplish it ? ” A sure prophecy worthily fulfilled by the influence of the leading members of this Association, supported by James A. Garfield in the National Congress, and by Dr. Henry Barnard, the veteran educator of America, who was so fitly chosen as the first U. S. Commissioner of Education under the act creating the National Bureau. Had the Association lived only to secure this one great act of national legislation, which has given us the services of Dr. Barnard and General Eaton as Commissioners of Education,

its labor would have been amply compensated. The establishment of a National University at Washington, on as comprehensive a scheme as the foundation of Oxford and Cambridge, was a pet scheme of some of the early friends of the Association; and until the magnificent endowment of Johns Hopkins at Baltimore, continued to occupy the minds of many of our leading men.

A NATIONAL JOURNAL OF EDUCATION.

6. The publication of a *National Journal of Education* by the Association was one of the presidential recommendations, which waited sixteen years for its fulfilment as an outgrowth of its New England ally, the American Institute of Instruction. At this first annual meeting, Horace Mann, then president of Antioch College, was one of the leading spirits, and Daniel Reed, LL.D., then the venerable professor of Mental Philosophy in the young University of the young State of Wisconsin, read an address on the Condition and Needs of American Education, in which he paid tender tributes to the memory of such Western educators as Dr. Wilson of Ohio, Dr. Wylie of Indiana, Dr. Linsley of Tennessee, Dr. Bishop of Kentucky, Drs. McGuffey and Scott of Ohio, and Dr. Ray, "who had but recently completed his course in life's Polytechnic."

We cannot omit the following gallant resolution, introduced by Mr. Bulkley of Brooklyn, in acknowledgement of a note sent to the desk by a lady who had devoted her life to the cause of education: "*Resolved, That we are encouraged in our work by the approving smiles and encouraging words of women*, and that we regard her as the most accomplished and successful teacher; that we hail as honored co-laborers every 'Lady Pilgrim' who, 'with high and holy aims, and calm and happy minds,' produced 'by the perusal of God's Holy Words,' and 'with healthful and robust body,' devotes her powers to the noble work of education." We doubt not that the almost overwhelming influx of ladies to the teaching ranks since that date received much of its impulse and inspiration from this remarkable "hail" and "welcome."

DEPARTMENTS OF THE ASSOCIATION.

I have thought that these details of the origin of this Association would be new and interesting to many, who have never attended its sessions, and would be glad to know something of its history. The whole work of the Association was done in general session until 1880, when, at the Cleveland meeting,—Dr. Hagar of Massachusetts presiding,—the Normal School Association and the National Associ-

ation of Superintendents, two independent bodies, were merged as dependents within the larger body. Since that date the work of the Association has been still further specialized in the formation of the Elementary, the Higher, the Industrial, and Art Departments, while its work has been directed in the channels of philosophic inquiry and pedagogic study through the National Council of Education, which was organized within the Association at the meeting at Chautauqua, New York, in July, 1880.

The two important Conventions now holding their sessions at Madison, in connection with the Association,—the Froebel Institute of North America, under the presidency of Professor Hailmann, and the National Musical Convention, under the presidency of Dr. Hagar,—are with us by courtesy awaiting the wise counsels of our Association as to the time when these may become departmental relatives to this body. It is to be hoped that neither will be obliged to wait long at the threshold of this hospitable national mansion before admission shall be gained.

ELEMENTARY PRINCIPLES OF A SCHOOL SYSTEM.

Our school systems have been of slow but steady growth. The various parts, from the primary school to the university, have each a separate origin and history, growing out of the wants of society as civilization has advanced. The common school is at once the child and the mother of the State, and in its historic growth has taken on such forms and appliances as society seemed to demand, and has yielded to such formative influences as the growth and changes of social and business life have required. What we call school systems are but the aggregate of the trial-attempts of the past in practice and in legislation; to bring to pass the solution of one problem,—namely, given an infant child, to produce the useful and intelligent citizen.

One of the first principles to be established is, that every child shall receive a fair share of education. History tells, and repeats the story, of the slowness of the great mass of people to accept and adopt so cardinal and vital a policy. In theory, this doctrine lay at the foundation of our State and National Governments. Winslow, Winthrop, and Williams were advocates of a system of sound learning, both in the school and the college. Domestic education in New England was the first care of the founders, and in 1642 it was ordered in the Court of Plymouth, "that the selectmen of every town in the several precincts and quarters where they dwell, shall have a vigilant eye over their brethren and neighbors, to see, first, that none of them shall suffer so much barbarism in any of their families as not to en-

deavor to teach, by themselves or others, their children and apprentices so much learning as may enable them perfectly to read the English tongue, and knowledge of the capital laws, under penalty of twenty shillings for each neglect therein." Not to keep and maintain the schools required by law, has been an indictable offence in Massachusetts since 1647. Attendance at school, if not enforced by law, was sustained by a strong public sentiment. Legal compulsion in attendance is the modern feature, which our own times enact to protect the State from the greater dangers and wider encroachments of vice and ignorance.

The second principle is, that the property of the State should be responsible for the education of its children. Admitting the first principle, which is now almost an educational axiom, it required years of growth to reach the next period, of free education for all the children of the people. To incorporate this principle into the policy of even enlightened people, has cost volumes of argument and years of wordy warfare. What seems to us so plain and well established as these two principles, were at one time the issues over which battles,—political, ecclesiastical, and social,—were fought and won on either side. Growing out of these two principles are practical matters of vital importance, such as the provision for school-buildings, teachers, books, etc., all of which had their settlement in local, rather than general legislation.

The New-England States, and the country generally, long ago passed through these two periods of school-history, and have now entered upon the third epoch,—namely, that of school unity and system as secured by school supervision. Schools of various grades have been established, the children have more or less generally attended them, and the people have more or less generously supported them. But we can readily see that the several parts of this educational work could never become a complete and harmonious whole without some great controlling, unifying power. The diversity of origin, the plan, spirit, work, and success of the various school agencies, testify to the need of a central administration, which should embrace all its parts in its comprehensive control and impulse.

Forces to be effective for good must be organized, supervised, and controlled by some superior agency. Educational forces are subject to law, and their highest utility is secured, and the least waste of energy accrues when a wise intelligence directs the movements of all the parts. It may seem a matter of surprise that so important elements as those of organization, system, and supervisory care, should be among the last phases of educational development,—that what

was needed at the outset should be the latest adjunct of the school-work. While the genius of order and wise direction enters so largely into the other secular plans and enterprises of the day at their birth and establishment, we shall find that the school systems of the world have been tentative in their growth, the people have been slow to apprehend their needs, and that very gradually the work has been built up. But it is the natural order or law of proceeding from parts to the whole, from particulars to genera, from units to systems: first the blade, then the ear, then the full corn in the ear. Minerva may have sprung full panoplied from the brain of Jupiter, but we wait the day for the full-equipped school system, though centuries have followed its birth.

A SCIENCE OF EDUCATION.

Education seems to be slowly becoming a science by a gradual change of basis. Twenty, or even ten, years ago all works on Pedagogy that made much pretence to be systematic, both here and in Europe, were based on metaphysical first principles, as expounded by Hegel, Herbert, Hamilton, Comte, as the case might be, different as these were among themselves, and the object was a *philosophy* of education. Now such works rest upon a more inductive and *scientific* basis.

1. Anthropology has contributed a mass of material helpful to teachers.

2. Empirical psychology, or the analytic experimental study of sense-perception, of memory, attention, and association of ideas, has made great progress during the last ten years, and sheds very much light on educational methods.

3. The study of *morbid* psychology, or incipient disorders of the emotions, will, and intellect,—*traces* of which are so common among school-children,—adds something, and is likely to add more.

4. The history of education in its broadest sense, *including the art of study* generally, and all those avenues by which knowledge passes outward, from cultivated or adult mind, to the ignorant and the young; the history of school legislation in countries where it is better codified than in America; the history of great schools, of learned societies, of endowments, etc., seem to us better utilized in saving the work of trying over old experiments, proven to be wrong.

5. Moral education is an "infinite question," opening now very fast. If the public, so omnipotent, should ever lose faith in the good moral tendencies of the three R's, and come to feel that our curriculum did not make men better, public confidence in appropriations

for education would be reduced. This is the only *possible*, and not very imminent, danger now threatening our system.

The present seems to me *the time* of all times, so far in the educational history of our country, for all interested in education to make a long, a strong pull *all together*, for there was never so deep and wide an interest in it before. Things were never so plastic, changes never so rapid, questions and opportunities never so open.

The thing we want to know, I think, is the natural history of the normal child's faculties and growth; the child's *interests*, the things it is *curious* about, *the subject it likes*, are, in fact, *all* determining; the art of teaching is to *adapt* to these, not to teach strictly by rules; The many studies of children's likes, dislikes, plays, and games; the great science of ignorance (*i. e.*, what they *don't* know as distinct from what *may* be presupposed), are now making great progress by many methods and with rich results. These methods themselves will, when perfected, be part of every normal pupil's practical training. To know one's pupils is just as important as to know the subjects; and the preëminence of the great teachers of the race,—Pestalozzi, Froebel, Socrates, and even Jesus,—lay in the *arts of adaptation*, and must be based on a more all-sided knowledge of the youthful faculties.

PRIMARY EDUCATION — ITS CONDITION AND WANTS.

Primary education is indispensable for American citizenship; so much is conceded by all, even by those who oppose higher education. That a government of the people, for the people, and by the people, can be perpetuated without so much general intelligence as is implied in the studies of the common school, is utterly impossible. The question of the welfare of the common schools, and of the condition and needs of the primary schools, is always one of the most lively interest and of the greatest public importance.

The kindergarten movement has had and will continue to have a wholesome influence on the methods of securing discipline in the primary school-room. The atmosphere of the primary school is lighted up with a sunshine that exerts nearly the same influence on the children that the July sun exerts on growing plants. There is not now the same abrupt transition from the family to the school that once existed. Further growth in this direction is desirable, and it is coming, especially in the city and village school systems, where the kindergarten influences have already affected the primary schools for good.

The advocates of industrial education urge upon the primary

school the substitution of industrial disciplines for some at present retained. From the experience of the kindergarten it would seem as if the training of the hand and eye could be carried up into the primary school. But the direction of the primary school will not consent to neglect those branches of instruction which are traditional in its course of study. The main thing that keeps back industrial education is the defect of methods that can generalize the various manual processes in the trades. In fact, it is the progress made in this direction already by the Russian training school that has given so much impulse to industrial education. Further progress in this direction will come in time, and will be accompanied by corresponding growth in the system of schools devoted to manual training. Industrial drawing has had much trial in our schools, and is past the stage of mere experiment, and will hold its place in primary instruction as a general discipline of the hand and eye.

When other manual training discovers disciplines that are of so general application to all pursuits as free-hand drawing, undoubtedly they will be made a part of the course of study and training in the common school.

Primary instruction will always include the teaching of reading, writing, and arithmetic, as the most desirable accomplishments to the individual who should be helped to self-help. For of all the good things that it is possible for one human being to do for another, the best is that which confers with it the power of self-help.

There has been great progress made in late years in the art of teaching reading. The impulse given by the labors of Colonel Parker, at Quincy, has been felt everywhere over the land, and other waves of influence have accompanied it, all tending to direct the attention of the teacher to the method of securing the speediest mastery of the printed page.

There is a good move at present, in the schools, toward encouraging reading at home, and developing a taste for better reading. This looks toward a closer connection of the school with the public library.

In the study of numbers, primary arithmetic, doubtless we are on the eve of important revolutions. The use of physical objects, the divided cube of the kindergarten apparatus, for example, in the earlier stages of instruction in numbers, have proved of decided value. We may expect as great modifications, however, in this direction as in the methods of teaching reading.

The elements of natural science, it is conceded by the most advanced public opinion, should be taught in the primary schools.

There is no doubt of the truth of this position. The great question is one of method. He will earn lasting honors who will invent a method that will prove as successful as the method of teaching reading. The main point to be kept in mind is the importance of avoiding one-sidedness, and taking one science or one class of sciences for the whole. The same tendency has been observed in the matter of industrial education. It has been supposed, apparently, that one special branch, — that of carpentry or working in wood, — includes general industry. The fact that only one person in twenty is needed for working in wood even in the communities most given to mechanical employments does not seem to have had due weight. So the study of botany alone is not enough to meet the demands of natural science.

The question of moral instruction in the common school has received much attention, and there is found a perpetual necessity for this in the growth of secularizing tendencies in modern society, and especially in American society. A study of the moral tendencies of the school undoubtedly reveals much that is encouraging, — the cultivation of the good habits of self-control in matters of regularity, punctuality, and silence and industry; obedience to the direction of the superior, courtesy towards equals, and these essential matters, — so well taught in the well-disciplined school, — the fundamental basis of a moral character is well laid. But the still more important matter of religious education has not been provided for in the common school system, and the proper adjustment of the boundary between what may be called sectarian and what may be considered as within the domain of common general morality, and justly a matter of public legislation, remains a problem.

The matter of the attacks on the common school should receive a word of comment. The staple grumble in the all-knowing editorial is: "Education makes people indolent and unwilling to earn their living by honest labor."

"Is it wise or best to educate our children beyond the position which the vast majority of them must always occupy?"

"Our present educational system largely unfits young people to deal with the actual necessities of those who are to earn their own living. It takes away self-reliance, begets conceit, and draws attention to what is ornamental rather than what is fundamental."

The supposition that reading, writing, and arithmetic, together with training in habits of self-control and industry, should demoralize the youth of the land, is something wonderful.

The question whether education prevents crime has been answered in the report of the United States Commissioner for 1872, to the

effect that in seventeen States the statistics of a total number of 110,538 prisoners showed that the number of convicted criminals from the illiterate portion of those States was seven times as large as the proportion from the educated.

The common schools are a great moral force in our civilization ; and the common school teacher is the most important factor in determining the character, both mental and moral, of our future men and women.

CONCERNING TEACHERS.

Our profession as teachers has made great advances within the life of this Association. Horace Mann in his first report says of the public school teachers of Massachusetts, "Wherever the discharge of my duties has led me through the State, with whatever intelligent men I have conversed, the conviction has been expressed with entire unanimity that there is an extensive want of competent teachers for the common schools. This opinion casts no reproach upon that most worthy class of persons employed in the sacred cause of education. The teachers are as good as public opinion has demanded. Their attainments have corresponded with their opportunities ; and the supply has answered the demand as well in quality as in numbers. Without a change in prices, is it reasonable to expect a change in competency, while talent is invited through so many avenues to emolument and distinction?" In the same report, Mr. Mann says that the average wages per month paid to male teachers throughout the State, inclusive of board, was \$25.44, and to female teachers, \$11.38. Allowing \$2.50 per week for the board of men, and \$1.50 for the board of women, the compensation per year for male teachers on an average in Massachusetts (the best-paid State in the country) was \$185.28, and of female teachers was \$64.56.

In 1840, ten years after the Institute was formed, Secretary Mann says, in speaking of the influence of that association in improving the system of education, "The qualifications of teachers hold a place second in importance to none. I believe there is scarcely a single instance in the reports where the school committees speak with universal commendation of the success of teachers they have approved." But the most marked improvements in the teaching force of New England and the country have been made within the memory and experience of most of those in this audience.

The standard of preparation for the work has been also raised through our common and professional schools. Methods of teaching have thereby changed from the forced and unmethodic towards

natural and normal. More than one-fourth of our teachers have taken full or partial courses of normal-school instruction, and all have felt the impulse of a new professional spirit. The higher appreciation of the school in the community, as judged by its better results, has led to the increased pay of the instructor, so that teaching is now the most lucrative employment which society holds out to women, as shown by the fact that more than seven-eighths of the teachers in this country are women ; more by far than in any other employment, and possibly many others combined. While our cities and larger towns have paid largely increased salaries over former times, we have still reason to be ashamed of the small compensations paid. One of the surest remedies for the removal of poor teachers in a community is the advancement of salaries. That community will then seek better talent, and the better talent will then seek the better pay. The great problem of the adjustment of the three factors,—ability, labor, and compensation,—is just now before us for solution. My impression is that its arrangement will follow something this line of movement :

1. The best talent and largest experience will be found in our primary grades of school.

2. Our best primary teachers and our best high-school teachers will receive equal salaries, and these the maximum.

3. A sliding scale of salaries will be adopted, based upon qualifications and experience, ranging from a minimum for beginners to the maximum for the well-established and successful instructor.

4. These salaries will never be subject to a decrease during the term of office of any incumbent.

Give to our teachers a scale of salaries which shall recognize grades of qualification and experience, make the ultimate salary one to which the best talent will be ambitious to aspire, and if you please confer a life annuity at the end of a given term of service,—say twenty or twenty-five years,—and we shall have laid the foundation for a permanent rather than a floating profession. Uneasiness and uncertainty in regard to salary is one of the most disturbing agencies in our work. Nothing depresses personal enthusiasm so much as to be constantly harassed as to one's financial concerns. It is all wrong that we should be driven to our wit's ends to make our salaries cover our annual expenditures, and then forced into a heated, feverish term of excitement lest the next year's income should be reduced and we compelled to make new terms with the landlady and she in turn reduce her grocer's bill proportionally. It is a high crime and misdemeanor of the State to ask us to expend our best energies in the

instruction of her youth, and then require us to use the balance in solving the problem of how to make the week's wages meet the week's necessary expenses. To remedy this enormity, equally an injustice to the teacher and society, we need first a competent and impartial board to judge of the qualifications of those who may enter the profession, as in law, medicine, and theology. When once over the threshold, we want the protection of provisional and life certificates, and the assurance of a comfortable living so long as we continue to give our services for the good of our fellows; and when we have served our day and generation in school work, have a sufficient reserve against "the rainy days" of the teacher's life.

It is most gratifying, in this connection, to quote from a distinguished English authority, the Bishop of Manchester, as to the comparative worth of American teachers. After referring to the want of more complete appliances for the training of teachers, he says, "There is a greater natural aptitude in American than in English women for the work of teaching. They certainly have the gift of turning what they do know to the best account; they are self-possessed, energetic, fearless; they are admirable disciplinarians, firm without severity, patient without weakness. Their manner of teaching is lively, and fertile in illustration; classes are not apt to fall asleep in their hands. They are proud of their position, and fired with a laudable ambition to maintain the credit of the school; a little too anxious, perhaps, to parade its best side and screen its defects; a little too sensitive of blame, a little too greedy of praise. I know not the country in which the natural material out of which to shape the very best of teachers is produced in such abundance as in the United States." In the midst of much that would tend to discourage us, it is encouraging to refer to the testimony of so valuable a witness.

SOCIAL STATUS OF THE TEACHER.

There is one compensation which we enjoy to a large degree in this country which is denied to the teachers of most other countries, and which may properly be referred to here. It is the high social rank and privileges of our profession. The teacher is shut out from no society merely on account of being a teacher. More likely than otherwise, the avenues to social life are more easy of access by reason of the training and culture which our educators, men and women, possess. In England the teacher stands on the social level of the hall servant. Often he must join with the business of teaching, the work of beadle, parish clerk, verger, or sexton. Quoting from Bishop

Fraser on this point : " As to the character and repute of the teacher's profession in America, it certainly stands very high. The teacher of the humblest district school occupies a far higher social position than the teacher of an elementary school in England. All hangs upon the teacher's personal character and qualifications ; as far as his profession is concerned, he is on a level with anybody. I was occasionally invited to visit their homes. They appeared to me to live in a sort of cheerful and refined frugality, able to exercise a hearty but inexpensive hospitality."

Standing on such high vantage-ground, the American teacher should not rest satisfied with ordinary attainments and results. Much has been done, more remains, to satisfy our ideal of the truly successful educator. It is the special work of the National Educational Association to shape and energize these educational forces, to quicken to higher entertainments in professional life, to release our systems from the dead weights of incompetency in high and low places, to give to our profession the functions of permanency and power, and to secure for it the proper rewards which an intelligent society should ever render for intelligent service.

THE TEACHER'S TENURE OF OFFICE.

The law of survival involves two elements,—superiority, both physical and mental, and harmony with one's environment. Translated into the vernacular of the teaching-profession, this law declares that the conditions of permanent success are : (1) Capacity, — physical, mental, and moral. (2) Professional acquisitions, plus natural gifts. (3) The attainment of certain standards of qualifications, as determined by experimental tests, under experts, including trial tests, examination tests, and teaching tests ; add to these the zeal and inspiration which foreshadow great success, as the prophetic gift, and you have all that compels to true teaching, and against which no earthly power can prevail when the possessor is installed in the teacher's office. The law of spiritual gravitation knows no superior force, and the man or woman who *must teach* has a commission which men can neither give nor revoke. Mary Lyon of Holyoke, Dr. Taylor of Andover, Horace Mann of Antioch, Arnold of Rugby, Froebel and Pestalozzi, Socrates, and Jesus of Nazareth, held certificates, God-given, which man had neither the ability nor the will to annul ; and every true successor of these has little need of the protection of a civil service applied to teaching, or a tenure-of-office fixed by statute law.

The common schools of America are suffering to-day, not so much

from the fact that inexperience and incompetency get an entrance at the back-door of our school systems, as from another more appalling fact,—namely, that we cannot cast out of the front-door enthroned imbecility and nepotism. Conservatism, innate and deep-seated as original sin, stands guard to protect shallow conceit and the garrulous ghosts of an elder day; while talent and qualification, which carry in their own persons their own *claim for* and *tenure-of office*, must stand and dance attendance on the guardians of historic methods and traditional educational faiths. Our platform as to school service has but three planks,—*Qualification, Inspiration, Consecration*. Standing on these we shall be able to enter upon our work when the call comes, and have grace to leave it when it is done. Then we shall hear the “WELL-DONE.”

HIGHER EDUCATION.

The interests of learning in the common school and the college are one. Public and private institutions, primary and collegiate education, are but the parts of one complete whole. As the school-boy and college graduate have a personal identity, so also the unity of all scholarship must be seen in the sum-total of school-life. The stages differ only in degree, not in nature.

“From Nature's chain, whatever link you strike,
Tenth or tenth thousandth, breaks the chain alike.

When the common school advances, higher education flourishes. As the college grows, its magnetic life should pervade the domain of the district school. The very presence of the college in a State is an inspiration and a blessing to all good learning, of whatever name. The ideal hopes and purposes of the best talent in our common schools center here. As the high school and the academy gather the first-fruits of the lower grades of instruction, so the college opens its doors to satisfy the aspirations and ambitions of those who may complete the preparatory course with honor. The stimulus from above may be felt throughout the system, elevating, energizing, and stimulating all its parts.

The humblest home and school in our land feel the influence of the college, and bless it for the incentives, the opportunities, and the possibilities which they furnish. Every science taught there, every truth unfolded, every professorship actively employed, and every dollar spent in facilities for higher instruction, add directly and indirectly to the common stock of agencies which benefit and build up the common school; and he who for any reason attempts to degrade any department of higher or academic instruction, is engaged in the foolish undertaking of pulling down the roof which shelters him.

While all this is true, there still remains in many of our States an unbridged chasm between the common school and the college. Want of unity, sympathy, and relationship is the complaint which goes up from the lower to the higher ranks; while the higher often sends down to the lower no helping hand, no look of cheer, no word of fellowship and assistance. This unsympathetic condition of things is more patent in the East than in the West, where the State University stands as the head of the system, and is the exponent of all that is best in that system,—where the primary school, the grammar school, the high school, and the college are but successive steps up the educational ladder, and so constructed that each ascending round is made the stronger by the multiplication of supports from the bottom of the ladder. When the colleges of the land shall feel that a vital relation exists between them and the common schools of the country, and that each is the complement of the other in the educational whole, one of the elements of weakness in our colleges will have been converted into strength.

Our American colleges are suffering also from a lack of thorough preparation of students, at admission, in the elements of an English or a classical education. Exact knowledge in the fundamentals of an education is the essential to advanced knowledge, and the complaint comes from many of our higher institutions, not only that real knowledge is wanting, but that the discipline from study is weakly superficial. This lessening of the value of the college course is partly owing to the unhealthy competition existing between the various colleges in their rivalries for large numbers of students, and partly to the rash haste of parents to see their children in professional life at too early an age, or in the equally faulty desire of young men and women to enter upon the duties of life while yet unprepared for them; and still another reason exists in the break-neck pace at which all of our life,—business, social, professional, religious,—is pushing on toward an imaginary goal, through imperfect methods, all by short cuts; while the king's highway is one of slow and steady toil, free from the excitements and stimulus of modern society.

The courses of study in our colleges are now open to lively discussion, both as to the adjustment of the mathematics, the sciences, and the ancient and modern languages in the curriculum; and also as to electives for students, reaching now in some colleges, — as Harvard, for instance, — to the freshman year. A liberal education, as defined by President Eliot and others, may be acquired by passing any one of the score of combinations in the make-up of college studies. It may be large classics and little mathematics, or the opposite; it may

be modern languages, with little classics and less mathematics, with a percentage of science; or it may be a little of all, with a heavy supply of base-ball and college boating. Has it occurred to our college friends that the wonderful permutations and combinations of college studies are destroying the confidence of young men in liberal studies, and that grave uncertainty is attached to all common standards by which a liberal education can be measured?

Has it also occurred to them that boys and girls, infants in the law, yet in their teens, may not be the wisest judges as to the best studies to be pursued, either as culture-studies or knowledge-studies, or both. Are we to commit to the untrained and inexperienced the solution of a problem, by chance choice or whimsical caprice, which the wisest and the best of the world have wrought out by the slow processes of educational evolution?

While it is undoubtedly true that scientific studies, the modern languages, and the English language especially, should have a prominent place in a college course, it seems to us equally true that there is somewhere a fixed limit, a maximum and minimum standard, as respects the time to be devoted to each in the college, and that our colleges are liable to go to pieces on the rocks and shoals of elective studies. We must declare that some studies do enter as constituents into a liberal education; that others are optional or elective, and that the latter should not infringe upon the claims of the former. This doctrine, and this only, will save liberal studies from threatened shipwreck.

INDUSTRIAL EDUCATION.

Americans are an industrious and an industrial people. Ceaseless activity, ingenuity, productiveness of hand and brain, are our world-known characteristics. The wage-producing capacity of Americans, per capita, exceeds that of any other nation on the globe. By the census of 1880, of our fifty millions, 17,392,090 were pursuing "gainful occupations," that number being 34.69 per cent. of the entire population of 1880, and 47.31 per cent. of the population of ten years of age and upward.

Those following "gainful occupations" are distributed into classes as follows: Agriculture, 7,670,493; professional and personal services, 4,074,239; trade and transportation, 1,810,256; manufacturing, mechanical, and mining industries, 3,837,112; as divided by sex, 14,744,933 were men, and 2,637,157, women. In other words, one in seven of our people is a farmer, one in twelve is engaged in professional life, one in twenty-five is a tradesman, and one in four-

teen is a manufacturer, a merchant, or a miner. Conceding for argument's sake that the ratio of the population in the industries above named to the total population is a normal one, the inquiry at once arises as to the best method of educating one-third of our people for the special callings enumerated. The agencies now employed are the common schools, the high schools, the colleges and universities, the agricultural, technical, scientific, and professional schools of various names, and manual-training schools. Do we need others, or shall we change the method and purpose of those already existing? Just now this matter of industrial or manual education is in such a muddle in the popular mind that it is impossible to tell just what is wanted. The new education is accredited with bringing into being a revolution in the thoughts and theory of the school in this regard, and in its operation so to direct the physical, mental, and moral education of the child as to make him a skillful machine to put to any and all mechanical or intellectual uses, just as circumstances may require. The leading paper of the North-west beyond Chicago, the *Pioneer Press* of St Paul, in an editorial of a few months ago, says :

PRESS OPINIONS.

"The New Education is a phrase which signifies more than can be defined in a few paragraphs, but within it lies the germ of promise for the people and the State. Let us get as near the heart of this all-important matter as we can. Starting with the fundamental proposition that one of the first duties of a republican government, resting on universal suffrage, is the education of those who are to rule its destinies in all that is essential to citizenship, we may easily discover how events have moved up to the present time. The meaning of the term education, in the minds of the founders of our system, was not instruction in those matters which make a man socially useful and politically wise, except indirectly. The pattern necessarily followed was the then prevailing idea of education in other lands ; an idea whose end and object was culture. It contemplated instruction in the elementary branches chiefly as a preparation for college, the perfection of mundane enlightenment. Only by degrees, as the States committed themselves more freely to the university plan, did this idea extend itself, but it came at last to dominate the whole."

"The primary inquiry was not what does this boy or girl need for the actual life lying ahead ; but what is best for the ideal boy or girl who shall attain a well rounded development of the purely mental faculties. We have the legitimate products of the system to-day in courses of study where Latin and Greek are far from alone in answering the charge of practical inutility ; in faithful and well-trained teachers patiently going the round of their Sisyphean labor ; in a few pupils who persevere to the end of the course only to find themselves prepared for nothing but a professional life from

which they may be utterly debarred by nature or circumstance ; and in a great army of children who have fallen by the way, who never expected or desired to obtain the ultimate end of culture, and who find too late that the time spent in so-called education was as nearly wasted as time can be, so far as their life-work or their duty as citizens is concerned."

"The substitute is the New Education. Its cardinal principle is the permanence of individuality. Its rule is to give to the many what the many need, without cutting off from the few free access to the higher paths that they see opening before them. It aims at no sudden iconoclasm, but asks that instruction shall proceed in the order of its importance to those instructed,—in the ratio of its practical usefulness. And the order presented is scientific: First, things needful in every relation,—that is, instruction in the fundamental branches ; second, things needful in vital relations,—that is, industrial training ; third, things needful for social relations,—that is, the education which directly bears upon intelligent performance of the duties of citizenship ; and, fourth, things adding to the happiness of life,—that is, the higher education as it is now understood. Nothing that has been found of value is to be discarded, but into the educational fabric is to be woven the strand of industrial education, which alone can give to the whole the color and the texture that it needs. In this we shall only be following the lead of men and communities whom this same problem has confronted, and who have thought out its solution for themselves. The manual-training school of St. Louis is a proved success. In Philadelphia the brilliant Mr. Leland has done the noblest work of his life in building up a fine industrial school. A building for the same purpose is being erected in Chicago. And at the instance of men like Charles Francis Adams, Edward Atkinson, and Colonel Parker of Quincy, manual training was two weeks ago incorporated in the curriculum of the public schools of Boston. It is coming everywhere ; and it is coming, not as an interloper, but as one who seeks and claims the rightful heritage so long denied him. Culture will not suffer ; but the masses, who do not hope for culture, will not be denied that practical help which is the only justification for education in the name and by the liberality of the State. In these labor-schools the time is so divided between text-book-work and shop-work that no pupil leaves them ignorant of the fundamentals of education, or of what he should do with the hands and the mental faculties that are perhaps his only capital. From this root true education must spring, no matter how high it rears its lordly trunk. To this it must come unless it would be false to every promise it has made. They who welcome this reform at once do but anticipate the future, when the children of the Nation shall no longer be given a stone in answer to their piteous cries for bread."

MECHANICAL OR CREATIVE.

Dr. Felix Adler says that the phrase "industrial education" has two distinct meanings. "As understood by one party it means the

kind of education that is intended to foster industrial skill, and to fit the pupil while at school for the industrial pursuits of later life. Perhaps the majority of those who insist on the importance of industrial education in public schools, and who are urging its adaption, use the phrase in this sense." This view he stigmatizes as a plan "to make the mass of mankind more machine-like than they already are, though with the proviso that shall be made more perfect machines, more skillful to increase wealth, and to find the channels of the manufacturer's profits." "I firmly believe," he says, "that the State violates the rights of children when it undertakes to prescribe their future career during the school-age, and that the public system of education should be kept free from any subserviency to the 'bread and butter interests' of later life."

The true theory, as we maintain, is that in which labor is regarded as a means of mental development; that the education of the hands shall be the means of more completely and surely educating the brain; that to introduce a trade into the school is to degrade the school; and that to take away from the young the time that should be dedicated to the elements of general culture, and devote it to training them in a special aptitude, however useful later on, is to impair the humanity of the children. Here, then, we have the sharply-defined position of the two leading schools of opinion,—the one making the school subservient to the trade, and the other making all the general training subordinate to the mental power and moral power of the pupil.

THE CREATIVE METHOD.

"The creative method" which makes an elementary training-school subserve intellectual uses, the elevation of the tastes, and the formation of character, is undoubtedly the true one, and this principle determines in a large measure the methods of introducing manual training into the educational work. The common school has no specializing functions, and can only aid in the industrial processes in an indirect and general way. School life is too brief and its opportunities too limited to expect that a youth shall come forth from the school full armed for the battle of life, as Minerva from the head of Jupiter. Whatever can be introduced into the school curriculum that aids in gaining mental, physical, or moral power is right, proper, and excellent. All else should be dispensed with. The fault has been in America, as in other countries at first, that people look too much to the economic or commercial side and too little to the hand-work education in training the mind itself. A mercenary

or mercantile spirit has overcome the true educational purpose. Until there is a more general extension of the idea that hand-work education is for something more than to teach boys and girls to earn money, industrial education will amount to but little. In other countries it has not flourished till the broader idea began to prevail. So far as we make hand-work and head-work go together in school, without regard to pecuniarily profitable results, success may be expected.

If we extend the term "industrial education" to include technological schools, as they sometimes do in Germany, where they have their training schools that teach only the *theory* of trades, we might say that in such schools the chief defect is that there is no real hand-work except drawing. Tool-work is very important, and the day has come in some quarters when it is seen that the technological student must have hand-work to make a whole man of him. The Institute of Technology of Boston has made a beginning by requiring students of mechanical engineering to go through with a regular course of shop-work. The same thing should be extended to students of architecture and those of civil engineering. All experience shows the value of practical work in connection with technological instruction. The school of Mechanic Arts in that institution is a fair sample of what we would call an industrial or hand-work school.

We have in America no technical schools as they have in Europe,—schools of weaving, of horology, of engraving, of basket-making, of horse-shoeing, etc. Indeed we have much less need of these special technical schools than of general hand-work schools at the completion of a grammar school course of study. Under the general head of Technological Education there are now at least five heavily-endowed institutions, in which the work is fully up to the standard of West Point, and in efficiency and thoroughness far in advance of that done in any college in corresponding departments, except that done in the *special* departments at Harvard; these are the Rennsælær, the Sheffield, the Worcester, the Boston, and the Rose schools.

SEVERAL CONCLUSIONS.

Several conclusions seem evident from a survey of the field of technological training:

1. That the mercenary or mercantile motives for industrial or manual training as a part of the common-school curriculum are giving way to a true educational theory.

2. That the introduction of the workshop into the school-house is a poor make-shift for industrial education of any sort.

3. That the short school-life of the average American child demands that up to the age of 14, he should be held closely to the cultivation of the powers of observation, and "a scientific habit of thought and investigation," with a broad foundation of elementary and special instruction.

4. That it is of the utmost importance to technology that reforms in methods of teaching the common branches of knowledge in the common schools should be urged most strenuously. This is the thing to do, rather than lunge off into manual training. What the polytechnic can do for young men depends as much upon what they bring to her door as upon what they draw from her stores.

5. That by some discreet pruning a place can be made for instruction of all boys in the grammar schools, in the six mechanical powers; this is a kind of knowledge that they need take hold of greedily and find very useful. The necessary apparatus can be bought for \$20,000 for each school.

6. That the establishment of free manual training schools, as at Baltimore and Chicago, seems to point to the true solution of the difficulties which beset the problem of securing an increase of skilled labor.

7. That the establishment of apprentice schools, like those in Paris and other parts of France, is the real need of the time. Dr. Philbrick of Massachusetts, in writing of one of these schools, says: "The school located on the Boulevard de La Villette in Paris, which was opened in December, 1872, is the best school of its kind in the world. It has passed the period of experiment, and the city authorities have decided to establish schools of a similar type in the different industrial sections of the city. This is a real industrial school of the handicraft type. It is for boys who have completed their elementary education, but do not aspire to a high-school education. It is for the benefit of the great working-class. It is designed to form the skilled artisan,—not, indeed, to complete the training required for the finished workman, but to carry the apprentice far on his way to this goal, on which his eye is fixed."

(8) That college and special schools should adopt their instruction in technics and scientific methods to the local wants of the communities where they are established.

EMINENT AUTHORITY ON AMERICAN SCHOOLS.

In closing my remarks on this topic, I beg to refer to an opinion of our technological schools from a noted English scholar and statesman, the Right Hon. Sir Lyon Playfair, K. C. B., M. P., given in a

speech at the annual dinner of the Institution of Civil Engineers, Kingston, London, March 26, 1884: "I have visited probably every technical school in Europe, as well as in America, and I may say there is no one school in this country that may be considered a fully equipped technological school, fitted to teach the industrial arts in the complete and full way in which they are taught abroad. I happen to spend every autumn in America. America knows that it must compete with us before long with regard to our industry. Its protective tariff cannot long exist, and they are establishing the most complete technological colleges in different parts of the United States to be ready for this competition. In the Technical School at Boston there is not only the most complete equipment for persons intending to go into every art, the mechanical arts, the chemical arts, and other arts connected with the industries of the country; the laboratories are not only fully equipped, but the education is one of the most complete character. They have not only Schools of Design, but they carry the design into engraving and wood-cutting, and actually into the dyeing of the textile fabric. There are founding laboratories connected with the cotton trade, in which every scientific application with regard to cotton industries will be taught. They have machine-shops in connection with the Boston School of the most complete and equipped character. We have nothing in this country to compare with them. There is one which I hope will do so before long, the Technological School which is being built at South Kensington."

ART EDUCATION.

In no department is the educational outlook more promising than in that of Art Education. To fully realize this, it is necessary to consider Art Education, not as limited to work done in art classes and schools of art, but in the broader and truer sense of including also the creative work of school-life from the manual activities of the kindergarten; the study of form and color, and the expression of form-ideas through drawing and handiwork, in elementary schools; the practical, constructive, and decorative work in manual training-schools, in technical schools, and in schools of design; the study of the history of art in secondary schools and colleges, to the work in form, light, and shade, and color of the student-sculptor and artist in museums and schools of fine art. In all these directions, great progress has been made, and the causes which are impelling these efforts are not difficult to be seen.

The great educational movements of to-day are based on the development of the individuality in each pupil, and this individuality cannot be developed save by the cultivation of all the expressive and creative powers. In short, it has been found that individual expression of thought is the only sure test of individual knowledge. As soon as this fact became recognized, it was seen that educational progress could come only through enlarging the means of expressing thought,—that the old methods, by limiting expression mainly to oral and written language, confined the expression of thought within such narrow bounds that it was impossible to secure individual development,—and, moreover, that art-study of every kind would be a most valuable aid on the much-needed expressing side. It was not long, therefore, before earnest efforts were made to promote the study of drawing in the schools as a means of expression.

The history of drawing as a school study is extremely interesting. Drawing, in the schools of thirty years ago, was an "ornamental branch," was pursued as an "accomplishment," and was generally the merest mechanical imitation of poor pictures. Later it was advocated as a culture-study, but only for the few. It was first introduced into the *public* schools as disciplinary, as a means of cultivating attention; later, for industrial reasons, chiefly in the narrow field of design. *Now* it stands on broad educational grounds, and is advocated as affording a fundamental means of obtaining and expressing form-ideas, whether of a scientific, industrial, or artistic nature, and also as of great practical value in the great proportion of employments of adult life. Drawing is, therefore, no longer a superficial study, consisting of the production on the surface of one sheet of paper, the lines that may exist on another, but is now vivified by the study of form from objects, and becomes a means for the expression of the pupil's own ideas of form gained from the objects themselves. It is now understood, also, that objects must be studied,—

First, With regard to their actual facts of form.

Second, With regard to their appearance to the eye.

Third, With regard to their decoration.

This not only systematizes the work educationally, but also shows its practical tendency,—

First, To a knowledge of structure and construction, necessary therefore in science and manufacture.

Second, To a knowledge of pictorial representation, necessary in descriptive science and art.

Third, To a knowledge of decoration, necessary in industrial art and architecture.

So this study of form is carried forward until the whole realm of the natural world is studied by its means. Thus Drawing is now pursued, as much as a language of description and discovery, as an art. Resting on these foundations laid in elementary schools, provision must soon be made for broader instruction in this study in high schools and in advanced education, to meet the demands of scientific investigation and of artistic and industrial creations.

The work of evening drawing classes of art schools will then be lifted to a higher plane, with wonderful possibilities before them. It is too early to forecast in detail the effect of this movement in Art Education, but it needs no prophet to predict that, in the next decade, there will result an art-development, based on sound education, to an extent that few men comprehend.

For Art Education is no longer a mystical and cloudy subject. Its underlying principles are real, and capable of systematic development. It is found to be a subject susceptible of educational treatment, is recognized as of fundamental educational value, and is now presented with true educational method.

It behooves educators, then, not to stand aside and watch its development under the hands of specialists, but to acquaint themselves with its principles and its methods as bearing upon the great work of human development.

At the last meeting of this Association a new department,—that of Art Education,—was created, and to this department were committed investigations into the matter of drawing and art instruction generally. An able committee was appointed to make these investigations, and to report on a course of study in drawing for public schools; and we are to have, as part of the proceedings of this Association, the report of this committee.

NORMAL SCHOOLS.

If numbers are a criterion of success, then our normal schools are to-day in the enjoyment of a remarkable prosperity; for in all parts of the country the schools already established are full to overflowing, and there is an increasing demand for enlarged facilities for professional teaching. The growth of normal schools during the last ten years is something very wonderful.

In 1872 there were 98 schools, having 773 instructors and 11,778 students; in 1882 there were 233 schools, 1,700 instructors and 51,132 students,—a gain in ten years of 135 schools, 927 teachers, and 39,354 students. When we recall the fact that the first normal school in America was opened at Lexington, Mass., under the secretaryship of

Horace Mann, in 1839, we may truly express our great surprise that a half-century has produced such fruits.¹ In no other class of our schools do so great differences of condition, work, and results exist for several reasons:

(1) The varied conditions of preparation of students seeking admission to the professional school.

(2) The relative amounts of academic and professional work accomplished.

(3) The variation in courses of study and methods of instruction.

(4) The marked individuality and singular ability of the heads of normal instruction.

(5) The more or less complete recognition of the inductive methods in instruction.

(6) The breadth or narrowness of the foundation principles, involving teaching and government.

It is very clear that no fixed standard can be set for the admission of students to normal schools. This being the case, each school must be a law unto itself as to the relative amount of academic or professional work done, and the question is an open one, whether what is styled professional study can be thoroughly secured without a large measure of academic work; and, still further, it is questioned whether a true normal school can exist most successfully without a practice school, or school of observation, within its doors or within easy and constant reach of the students.

DEFECTS IN NORMAL INSTRUCTION.

The principal defects in normal instruction in America are,—

(1) A too rigid mechanism in methods, resulting in the destruction of what the Germans call "freedom," and which Americans call "individuality."

¹ ENTRY IN HORACE MANN'S DIARY.

JULY 2.—"To morrow we go to Lexington to launch the first Normal School on this side the Atlantic, and I cannot indulge at this late hour of the night, and in my present state of fatigue, in an expression of the train of thought which the contemplation of this event awakens in my mind. Much must come of it, either of *good or ill*. I am sanguine in my faith that it will be the former. But the good will not come itself. That is the reward of toil, of effort, of wisdom. These, as far as possible, let me furnish. Neither time nor care, nor such thoughts as I am able to originate, shall be wanting to make this an era in the welfare and prosperity of our schools; and, if it is so, it will then be an era in the welfare of mankind.

JULY 3.—The day opened with one of the most copious rains we have had this rainy season. Only three persons presented themselves for examination for the Normal School in Lexington. In point of numbers, this is not a promising commencement. What remains but more exertion; more and more until it must succeed."

(2) The analytic processes are carried to excess, and the instruction is sometimes spoiled by chopping it too fine, and by making too fine distinctions; by making processes chronologically distinct, that should be conducted almost simultaneously. Thus we have the "perceptive," the "conceptive," and the "reflective" stages set off with sharp lines and assigned to different periods of training. The pupil who chances to be in the "perceptive" period must not "conceive," and when in the "conceptive" must wait a little longer for the reflective processes to begin.

(3) The tendency to establish the teaching profession on too narrow a foundation; to foster a crude half-culture; to make the students feel satisfied with a secondary education, and thereby tend to arrest intellectual development. As the normal school is but a secondary school, it cannot compete with the university in its work, but it can and should secure for its principalships, and, as far as possible, for its faculties, men and women of the largest breadth of scholarship, as well as professional skill. For want of such faculties many of our normal schools are poor apologies for training the members of an intelligent profession.

HINDRANCES.

(1) The indifference of the people to broad professional training, an indifference growing out of ignorance of the true value of such instruction.

(2) Official ignorance, and even opposition, to normal or natural methods. The normal school is judged by its fruits in the poor results achieved by men and women who are not allowed to practice what they have been taught in their training course. The restrictive and proscriptive spirit and policy of our school-boards, in their unwillingness to grant a large personal freedom to the teacher, neutralize the work of the school, destroy the ambition of the teacher, and tend to foster a spirit of deceit or conceit at once subversive of the true spirit of an instructor of youth.

(5) Perhaps the most serious hindrance to the success of normal schools is the want of sufficient means to carry on the legitimate work of such schools.

(a) For the employment of teaching force, both of men and women, of talent and qualification, for conducting original investigations in pedagogic science. In this connection we are glad to note the following concerning the Rhode Island State Normal School :

Another important change has been made in the school, in accordance with a recommendation made by the State board of Examiners in its last report to the Legislature. That report said: "If the corps of teachers in the Normal School contained more men, more young men would be attracted as students, more ambitious young men destined to make their mark in any profession, and the grade of the school would be raised to a post graduate rank, like the law schools and medical schools. Then, the common-school authorities of the State, seeing the advantage of trained male teaching, would, it is hoped, make such appropriations as would enable them to secure more of it, and thus to meet one of the greatest present wants of the common schools."

(b) For securing longer courses of study, in order that scientific subjects may receive more attention.

(c) For the more complete and continued application of the principles of inductive philosophy to all teaching, and to the fuller study of educational theories, history, and philosophy.

EVENING SCHOOLS.

This department of educational work, though of vital importance as a means of reaching the masses, is, without doubt, neither fully appreciated by school authorities nor fairly understood by the general public. Hundreds of cities and towns in the country, burdened with an appalling and increasing illiteracy, provide no means whatever for evening classes, while a great proportion of the schools maintained, are either indifferently managed by committees or miserably mastered. That this is a grave error, and demands our serious attention, none conversant with the subject can doubt. By the report of the Commissioner of Education for 1881, it is seen that but thirty-two cities in the United States provided evening instruction, though I am happy to note that since the writing of that report this number has materially increased, as also have the means for their suitable and successful maintenance.

In Massachusetts alone, during the past year, thirty-seven cities and towns, at an expense of \$56,744 54, maintained 110 elementary schools, the average attendance thereat being 3,613, some 60 per cent. of the total enrollment. Reports from other States show a growing (yet by far too slow) tendency to encourage this class of work. That there are many causes which have materially contributed to the discouragement of committees and teachers in the management of these schools is not doubted, yet I am confident that they are not without remedy.

Experiments in New York, Brooklyn, Cincinnati, Boston, Worcester, Lowell, and other cities, have demonstrated beyond all doubt that the crowding, confusion, and chaos common at the opening of ele-

mentary evening schools, as well as their great irregularity of attendance, can, under a healthy *régime*, be succeeded by the same order, interest, and regularity which characterize the opening and conduct of our well-regulated day schools. It must not be forgotten that evening schools, as a whole, exist under permissive authority, while day schools are maintained by the rigid construction of mandatory statutes. But two States, Pennsylvania and Massachusetts, have to any degree advanced this department to a like standard with the public schools. To contrast the condition of this branch of the service, even under the most favorable auspices, with that of the day school is both unfair to the school and an unpardonable demand upon those who have been zealously battling with difficulties and discouragements in the securing of more permanent provisions and a perfect system for their proper maintenance. What, then, may be asked, must be done? There is but one answer: Remedial legislation to meet the demands of the time is imperative.

The enactments of Massachusetts or Pennsylvania, in the absence of any better legislation, should be stereotyped by every state in the Union. To these should be added laws compelling the attendance of all illiterate minors, with proper exemptions in special cases of hardship. Truant laws should be made applicable which, supplemented by a hearty public support, would insure success. The Massachusetts State Board of Education, in their last report, commenting on the improved condition of the evening schools of the State since the enactment of the compulsory law, say: "The classes have been removed from ward-rooms and cellars to the desks occupied by day pupils. Better text-books and more liberal supplies, with teachers of recognized ability, have been added to the service. Organization, classification, and system have been substituted for the chaos, which, under the old *régime*, characterized many of the elementary schools, especially of Boston. In several localities, however, these schools have been reported as failures. Careful inquiry and examination disclose the fact that in every case the management, and not the members of the school, is at fault. There has been no marked success where there have been incompetent teachers, condemned supplies, torn and defaced text-books. With proper provisions for accommodations and supplies, competent teachers and good management, there is no doubt that evening schools will take rank with day schools, and can be made a credit to every community. In the face of the annual influx by immigration, further and more pertinent provisions by law are necessary to convert the great body

of foreign-born illiterate persons into intelligent, industrious citizens."

Such sentiments cannot fail of approval by all who have worked in this most fruitful field. The eleemosynary support of the system should at once be succeeded by the most liberal appropriation of public money. There is no wiser, better, safer depository for Federal aid than in the maintenance of a well-regulated system of elementary evening schools. The government would do well to imitate the great example at Creuzot, France, or the more recent action of the Willimantic Linen Company in Connecticut, which corporation, in the following order, issued August 1, 1882, has made a precedent meriting the highest commendation :

"No person now in the employ of the Willimantic Linen Company will be continued in their service after July 4, 1883, unless such person can read and write ; and on and after this date no person will be employed by the company who is unable to read and write."

The agent of the company, replying to a letter of inquiry as to the effect of this measure on their work-people, said :

"In order to give the work-people of the company who were included in the above notice an opportunity to protect themselves, evening schools were established during the following winter and spring. About one hundred and fifty availed themselves of the privilege, and the schools were very successful, so that at the expiration of the notice less than thirty were discharged. Exceptions were made in some cases, especially of those above 45 years of age. A large proportion of those attending these schools were of foreign birth, principally French Canadians. I consider that the schools were a perfect success, and was very much surprised at the rapid advancement most of them made in their studies, and the interest they took in the school."

Of evening high schools there appears but one sentiment : wherever properly maintained, they have fully justified the most liberal expenditure. In New York, Boston, Cincinnati, Brooklyn, and other cities, the reports show an increased public interest, which, to a great degree, is the true criterion of the good or ill management of this class of work. The curriculum of the New York Evening High School, while co-extensive with that of the high schools of the state, has successfully maintained advanced courses in collegiate work. In the Boston Evening High School, where the past winter were enrolled 1,643 young gentlemen and ladies, under a corps of nineteen teachers, under the principalship of Mr. E. C. Carrigan, a member of

the Massachusetts Board of Education, could have been seen for five evenings of the week the most earnest, devoted, and faithful pupils, representing all classes of industries, the majority of whom were present to complete the interrupted and unfinished course of the grammar and high schools. In addition to the regular work, this large body assembled twice a week in the exhibition hall, where a forty-minutes' lecture concluded the evening work.

SCHOOL SUPERVISION.

One of the greatest faults of our supervision of schools is its tendency toward a superficial, artificial, non-vitalized, and non-vitalizing relation to the school. The visits and work of some superintendents oftener seem a visitation of Providence rather than a helpful, hearty, vital support to teacher or school. One of the great movements to overcome the somewhat mechanical and forced relation of much of our supervision is in the exercise of supervisory relations by the principals or masters of schools, to all the community of schools tributary to their own. The principal is recognized as the head of the work in a certain district. Certain responsibilities are committed to him; certain results are expected of him. Power should be granted him to shape those results, and to bear those responsibilities with credit to himself and profit to his associates and pupils. As a superintendent he should (1) have some controlling choice in the election of associate teachers; (2) he should have an advisory relation to the School Board with reference to studies, text-books, discipline, modes of teaching, test examinations, and examinations for promotion. The important fact that for the last twenty years all the leading supervisory officers of the country have been promoted and chosen from the ranks of the teachers, is the most convincing proof that the experience of the principal is the vitalizing link between the administrative and teaching departments of a school system. And here let me urge what was so ably presented before the American Institute of Instruction at Providence, in 1875, — the organization of

SCHOOL FACULTIES,

consisting of the selection of leading teachers, whose duty it shall be to advise with each other and school boards on all matters pertaining to the schools, save those which are personal or incongruous to their official position. Dr. Eliot said, in the course of his argument, "While confessing our obligations to the superintendents who

have labored in our behalf, it is not ungrateful in us to doubt their being equal to the educational management of the schools in all its completeness. In becoming superintendents they cease to be teachers ; they are no longer on the same ground where they stood before, and where, as I have ventured to assert, it is best for our educational managers to stand. They are in an office whose functions are not merely educational, but largely administrative ; and though they have shown themselves thoroughly competent to do what they have had to do, they have not had to do some of the things which our schools need to have done. From the very nature of the case,—from the two-fold character of the labor committed to them,—from the fact that they are administrators, as well as educators, they are, at least to some extent, disqualified for the purely educational details of which teachers, and teachers alone, are the natural masters ; it is, therefore, to teachers that I would have these details transferred."

School faculties should sustain similar relations to the schools of a community that the college faculty does to the college ; while the superintendent should be the presiding genius, directly advising, and administering on the higher plane of an executive as well as a supervisory officer. These faculties should be chosen from the corps of teachers, exercising such functions as their superior wisdom in matters of practical detail would fit them to enjoy. The true dignity of the teacher's office would be recognized by such a relation and position in the school work of the city, town, county, or State. The proper balancing of influences, educational and administrative, would be secured in the most important decisions relating to the educational work of the community, and unity, harmony, and permanence of relationship would be readily secured and maintained. Much of the power of our teaching talent is now wasted in the merciless wear and constant friction between the authority that contrives and the hands that execute. How glad the day when the teacher and the officer can see, eye to eye, and work shoulder to shoulder, animated by a common purpose, each with the freedom of his own personality, but governed by the loyalty of all true hearts to duty, conscience, and the higher law !

TENDENCIES IN SUPERVISION.

The tendency seems in the direction of greater breadth of view, to make supervision less empiric and more philosophical in its methods. Superintendents are looking less to petty details and experiments in school-work, and more to the fundamental principles upon which any

efficient methods of building up intellect and character must rest. They are also growing more disposed to grant greater freedom to their teachers in managing and instructing their schools. And I doubt not the day is not far distant when they will quite clearly perceive the advantages that will be gained from availing themselves of all the power that may arise from the free and intelligent thinking of their teachers.

DEFECTS.

These may be stated briefly thus: (1) Too much time taken up in petty and unproductive details; (2) too much time devoted to harassing examinations,—*i. e.*, too much drawing from empty wells; (3) too much mechanical work enforced and encouraged in schools; (4) too much empiricism, and too little philosophy; (5) not enough stimulation of the right sort for teachers and pupils; (6) too much egotism; (7) not enough power vested in the superintendent for the correction of unquestioned defects in methods of teaching and management of schools.

REFORMS TO BE SOUGHT AND METHODS OF SECURING THEM.

The first and most essential reform is getting superior men for superintendents. Unless success crown efforts in this direction, all other efforts will be of little avail. No man should be allowed in this office who is not possessed of wide views and great enthusiasm, and who does not know his profession thoroughly. If he shall have arisen from the ranks, so much the better. A thorough knowledge of the work of each grade of his schools is almost imperative, and a longer term of office. The living from hand to mouth, year by year, as most are now compelled to do, and, in consequence, being debarred from entering upon any settled line of policy, deprives such officers, however able, of more than half their efficiency.

To secure these ends, wiser men must be elected to Boards of Education. This can only be brought about by arousing and enlightening the people. And this last is to be done through public lectures, the public press, and the efforts of teachers and superintendents.

TEMPERANCE TEACHING IN SCHOOLS.

The giant evil,—yea, crime,—of our day is *intemperance*. Compared with it all other vices and crimes are but its infant children. The great reform of our day is temperance. Compared with it all

other reforms are born of its healthful and omnipotent generation. Two persons stand at the threshold to protect the incoming generations from becoming an easy prey to the devourer of health, happiness, hope, life, and heaven. The natural protectors of our youth are the parent and the teacher, and the home and the school are the citadels for their defence. With a sagacity born of a true philosophy, and a holy purpose born of woman's enthusiasm, the bravest of knights have begun a great crusade which is as certain to drive intemperance, with its deadly hosts from the land, as is the light of day to chase away the fast-fleeing clouds of darkness. *Formation, not reformation*, is now the educational watchword which woman has proclaimed as the signal to be sent to all her allies in the world, and the two words,—WOMAN and TEMPERANCE,—each the symbol of the true and good, shall be forever united. It is a marvel to many that this new gospel of teaching the children the laws of health, of chastity, of purity, of hope, and of temperance, should have such a remarkable spread, and meet with so general acceptance; that legislators in town, city, country, state, and nation should listen, hear, and legislate to protect childhood from the ravages of RUM, and that a literature should spring up as by magic from a hitherto sterile intellectual soil.

But think of it for a moment. Is it true that a drunkard desires to entail to his son a drunkard's life, or does the rumseller or the manufacturer desire the law of primogeniture, as to business, to apply to his offspring, or would the citizen legislator destroy all hope of honest legislation in the future, by allowing social, civil, and financial ruin to stand as the external *ex post facto* of violated physical law? No! —a universal No! Hence it is that human nature, in its best and poorest estate, would protect its offspring; and this instinct rises superior to the befoulments of lusts, the debasements of appetite, the bewitchments of passion, and the degradations of avarice, and says to the mother and the teacher, with a tongue almost palsied with indulgence, "Teach my son, teach my daughter the lessons of unselfish living, of purity of thought and speech, of temperance in food and drinks, and in all manner of healthful and righteous example." With the voices of the good to cheer, the wicked to warn, and the wise to guide, what an inspiration for the teachers of our land to use the golden opportunity to make and keep our children free; to plant in virgin soil the good seed of temperance in all things; to enlist conscience on the side of law, and to enthrone Law as the supreme *Ruler and Judge*; to make precept weighty with example; to re-

inforce all with historic fact, incident and story ; and, above all, to throw around the easily tempted feet of childhood the restraints of a personal, loving devotion, which shall make us the saviors of little children, and, if occasion calls, by vicarious Christ-sacrifice to stand over against the cross of self-sacrifice, where the light of the Crown flashes across the vision, the hope of a brighter day, as others go marching on to victory.

NATIONAL AID TO EDUCATION.

These states of ours are a community with common interests and a common destiny. The evils which afflict one touch the life of all. The blessing which adds to the common weal in one section of our land, however remote from the centre, blesses all. Illiteracy is an universal menace to free institutions. Intelligence is a perpetual safeguard.

Of the 50,155,783 people of the United States there are 6,239,958 over ten years of age, — 12.44 per cent., or nearly one-eighth of our entire population, who cannot write. These illiterates are thus distributed :

Illiterate whites in 22 Northern States	1,272,208
Illiterate whites in the 8 Territories	69,933
Illiterate blacks in the 22 Northern States and 8 Territories	156,644
Illiterate whites in the 16 Southern States and District of Columbia	1,676,939
Illiterate blacks in the 16 Southern States and District of Columbia	3,064,234
Total	6,239,958

An analysis of these statistics shows that in eighteen States, including two Territories, more than 13 per cent., and in eleven more than 25 per cent., cannot write. In fifteen States and Territories more than 11 per cent. of the white population over ten years of age cannot write, varying in these from 11 to 45 per cent.

While no portion of the country is free from this scourge of ignorance, the condition of the Southern or former slaveholding States is especially lamentable and full of danger. More than one-fourth of the entire population of these States is illiterate.

Eight of these States, Alabama, Florida, Georgia, Louisiana, Mississippi, North Carolina, South Carolina, and Virginia, have over 40 per cent. of illiterates of all classes, white and black. The whole number of persons, white and colored, in the sixteen Southern States was 18,500,000. Of these, the number of illiterates was 4,715,395, or 27.1 per cent. This illiteracy is largely confined to the colored people, 47.7

per cent. of whom (3,220,878) cannot write, while only 6.96 per cent. of the whites (3,019,080) are in that condition.

The two bills now before Congress relating to Federal aid for education, — the Blair bill, which has passed the Senate, and the Willis bill in the House, — do not differ materially in their general provisions, and either, if adopted by Congress, will render very essential aid to the needier parts of our country, which are so sadly suffering for want of the blessing of free schools, and that largely from the poverty, and not from the want of interest, of the people to be educated. Both bills distribute the money directly from the United States treasury to the several States and Territories on the basis of illiteracy of the census of 1880, school and adult, from ten years old and upward. Both bills recognize the educational authorities of the States, aided, as the proper officers, to superintend the disbursement of the funds in the several States, and both require annual reports to Congress, through the Commissioner of Education, concerning the application of these funds to the public instruction of the children of whites and blacks impartially, for at least three months in each year. Both bills require the aid to be extended over a period of ten years, but the amounts are unequal, the Willis bill asking for only fifty millions of dollars, while the Blair bill calls for over one hundred and six millions of dollars. The latter bill distributes fifteen millions the first year, and reduces the amount one million dollars each year, closing with about six millions of dollars the last year; while the Willis bill begins where Blair's ends.

Of the merits of these bills we do not propose to speak, except in comparison with a third bill, which is now under the consideration of the Joint Committee on Education of both houses of Congress. This bill is the work of the Inter-State Commission on Federal Aid appointed at Louisville in September last, and seem to us to embody valuable principles not yet recognized in this most important piece of national legislation. We will note a few of the leading features of the new bill.

(1) The amount to be distributed is sixty-five millions of dollars,—a compromise between the amounts of the Blair and Willis bills.

(2) The distribution reaches over a period of twelve years instead of ten, thus enlarging its capacity for helping the people.

(3) Its distribution is to be made, not on the basis of the total illiteracy of the country, but on the *school illiteracy* between ten and twenty years of age, inclusive. Hereby the money is directed to the illiteracy within the school age

(4) The distribution is made on the following plan : For *each illiterate person in the States*, between the ages of ten and twenty inclusive, and for *each person in the Territories*, between and including the same ages, as shown by the census of 1880, there shall be apportioned for the first, second, and third years, each year four dollars ; for the fourth, fifth, and sixth years, each year three dollars ; for the seventh, eighth, and ninth years, each year two dollars ; and for the tenth, eleventh, and twelfth years, each year one dollar ; when all appropriations shall cease.

(5) One-third of the money apportioned to each State may be used for the erection of school-houses and the support of normal schools and normal institutes, and the other two-thirds to be used for common-school studies, including elementary industrial education.

(6) The common schools are required to be kept four months in each year, and the money is to be expended, under State laws, by the ordinary educational authorities.

(7) To superintend the carrying into effect the provisions of the bill, a board of trustees is created, consisting of the Secretary of the Interior *ex-officio*, two senators and two representatives, not belonging to the same political party, the Commissioner of Education, and the Fourth Auditor of the Treasury. This board is to attend to the distribution of the funds, to secure reports, to look after the honest administration of the funds in the several States, and to stand as a guardian of the trust for the Nation until its full disbursements has been made.

Singularly enough, the last-mentioned item meets with opposition from those who most urgently seek and need Federal aid, and this on the ground that it is an interference with States' rights ! Now all must admit that the whole plan of Federal aid to education is in opposition to the doctrines of Calhoun and Stephens. There is no possible justification of Federal interference with State administration of schools except on the ultra ground of a great national exigency, which knows no primal law but that of self-preservation. The Government proposes to meet local needs in the hour of peril, and asks that the hand which administers may connect with its aid the eye that watches over its wise and careful distribution." In no case does it propose to interfere with the distribution, but, as in the case of the Peabody fund, to place wise and trusty men over the great gift to see that it reaches and accomplishes its desired work. At the same time that the trusteeship is a protectorate over the fund going out of the national treasury, it is an equal protection to those who are to receive

it ; and both, as has been seen in the history of Congressional grants hitherto for all purposes, need just such watchful guardianship.

While we do not doubt the integrity and good faith of the men at the head of educational affairs north, south, east, or west, we do insist that the General Government should demand some sort of supervision of a fund going out of its treasury for a period of years, lest Congressional investigation shall, by-and-by, come in to bring our schools and school systems into disgrace. For the reason that our State school officers are good and honest men, they should be willing that the light of an eternal day should shine through their actions and their administration of a just gift from a paternal hand which seeks only the best good of all its children, and especially of the weak and unfortunate.

THE NEW SOUTH.

BY ROBERT BINGHAM.

THE EDUCATIONAL STATUS AND NEEDS OF THE NEW SOUTH.

Mr. President—Ladies and Gentlemen: I appear before this highly cultured audience, composed almost entirely of Northern men and women, to tell of the educational status and needs of the South, and I wish you to understand distinctly that I am a Southern man, of Southern birth, of Southern blood, of Southern education, of Southern record, of Southern prejudices, if you will. I was a Confederate soldier. I saw the last sun rise on the army of Northern Virginia. I was one of Lee's 7500 armed men at Appomattox Court-House, who never bowed the knee to any Baal, but fought to the bitter end. And it was a bitter end; but these bitter pangs were the birth pangs of the new South, which, though still in its swaddling bands, is greater and more powerful in some respects than the old South, and which will soon be greater and more powerful in all respects than the old South could ever have been.

When the bitter end came we surrendered in good faith. We accepted the conditions, and having done our duty as we saw it in one direction, we laid down our arms and betook ourselves to repairing the wreck and ruin around us. It was folly to stand, like the figure at the stern of a vessel, looking backward and weeping over the troubled waters behind. The Almighty gave man eyes in front only, that he may look to and live in the present and future.

The past of the South is irrevocable, and we do not wish to recall it. The past of the South is irreparable, and we do not wish to repair it; for, terrible as the lesson was in the learning, there are two propositions which meet with universal acceptance in the new South: First, that the greatest blessing that ever befell us was a failure to establish a nationality; and, second, that the next greatest blessing was getting rid of slavery on any conditions. A few of the older men—stranded wrecks of by-gone days—may cling to the dead past; but their influence has ceased, and, like giants Pope and Pagan in Pilgrim's Progress, they are harmless.

With regard to slavery, the men who are the motors of the new South reason very simply and conclusively that before the war, with organized labor and organized capital, the South made a little more than 3,000,000 bales of cotton. In 1880, only fifteen years after the surrender, with disorganized labor, and with no capital but the growing crop, we made more than 6,000,000 bales of cotton.

North Carolina made 140,000 bales of cotton before the war, and 25,000,000 pounds of tobacco, and in 1880 she made 400, 000 bales of cotton and 50,000,000 pounds of tobacco and as much grain as before; that is, we have as much to eat as we ever had, and we handle twice as much money, and at this rate it will not take many years to make up for all our losses by the war; so that the wayfaring man must be an enormous fool, if he cannot see that as 6,000,000 bales of cotton are better than 3,000,000 bales, so the present conditions will soon be better financially than the conditions before the war.

Again, we see the impossibility of a Southern nationality as plainly as we see the difference between the 6,000,000 and the 3,000,000 bales of cotton.

Every student of history must recognize the fact that the most marked characteristic of the Teutonic man, the man of the ages, is his intense instinct of local self-government. It was this instinctive fear of centralization that divided the England of the Angles and Saxons into a heptarchy before the infusion of centralizing Norman blood, and the same instinct has divided the Teuton beyond the German Ocean into so many petty independencies that the unification of Germany is an unsolved problem still. This same instinct of local autonomy prevailed after the Revolutionary war to such an extent that a federal union on any basis was of very difficult accomplishment, and the states' rights theory prevailed so fully as a theory that it was taught even at West Point fifty or sixty years ago, insomuch that if any of the West Point graduates who became Confederate leaders had been tried for treason, one very strong point in their defence would have been the text-book on constitutional law used at the Academy while they were there, in which the states' rights theory was distinctly taught. And the United States could not have considered it treason in *men* to practise what the United States taught them officially as *boys* to believe.*

Now, in contrast to this denationalizing teaching at West Point fifty years ago, I wish to give you, very briefly, the kind of instruction which I, a Southern Democrat, give my pupils—instruction which last summer I was called upon to repeat at three or four State normal institutes in North

*The following letter is my authority for this statement :

4117 PINE STREET, PHILADELPHIA, March 25, 1884.

DEAR MAJOR BINGHAM: While the question of Jeff Davis's trial for high treason was pending, Mr. Reed, counsel for the defence, was a member of my brother's congregation at Orange Valley, N. J. He told my brother, after it had been decided that the trial was not to take place, that if the case had come to trial the defence would have offered in evidence the text-book on constitutional law from which Davis had been instructed at West Point by the authority of the United States Government, and in which the right of secession is maintained as one of the constitutional rights of a State. You are quite at liberty to refer to me for this statement, which is given according to the best of my recollection.

Very truly yours,

L. W. BACON.

Carolina, before nearly 1000 teachers of common schools. It illustrates the manner as well as the animus of the instruction given in Southern private and public schools.

"Geography," I said, "by derivation, means earth-writing, as telegraphy means far-writing, and photography means light-writing. There are two kinds of earth-writing: *Man's*, which is political geography, and is feeble and ephemeral, and *God's*, which is physical geography, and is strong and eternal, predetermining climate, population, and the history of nations.

"One of the most distinctive features of physical geography is, that there are almost always some strong, bold strokes of God's earth-writings between nationalities. Nations have very rarely crystallized except behind natural barriers. Take China, for instance, a triangle with the highest mountains in the world to the southward, with mountains equally high climatically, to the northward, and with the greatest of oceans to the east. In this triangle, separated from the rest of mankind by impassable barriers on all sides, constituting the boldest strokes upon the earth of God's earth-writing, the most remarkable civilization among man has been developed; for while a succession of Western empires has risen, culminated, and passed away, the Chinese civilization, defective as it is in many respects, surpasses all others in having attained continuity. Man may come, and man may go, but the Chinaman goes on forever; for God's earth-writing isolates him completely.

"In Europe we find nationalities separated by natural barriers. The Pyrenees separate France and Spain; the Alps separate Austria and Italy; the Rhine flows between Germany and France; the thread of silver sea between England and the mainland has been a wall of fire which no alien enemy has dared to cross since the days of William the Norman.

"Civilization, like solids in solution, does not crystallize while motion continues. A natural barrier stops migration, and national peculiarities develop during the temporary rest. But when the peoples on opposite sides of an intervening barrier evolve organization enough to overcome the barrier, they meet with developed peculiarities which make them different, and which make them enemies.

"In the United States we find physical features bold enough for barriers between nations in the Appalachians, in the Mississippi, in the Rockies; but these lines of God's earth-writing ran north and south, at right angles to the lines of population, and did not stop migration. A father reached the Appalachians; a son and a daughter settled on this side of the mountain; a son and a daughter crossed the mountain, and the mountain separated a homogeneous population. The same was the case with the Mississippi—the same was the case with the Rockies.

"What we of the South tried to do, was to establish a nationality along a line 3000 miles long from east to west, where there was not a

stroke of God's earth-writing to separate one nationality from another, and the Almighty, who had written this country one with His earth-writing pen, spurned our efforts, though man fought for a nationality never more boldly before."

Such is the instruction given to my pupils, who come from every State in the South, and, by request, to nearly a thousand teachers of public schools last summer. Now contrast the theoretical disunion taught at West Point fifty years ago from man's standpoint, and the practical union from God's standpoint, impressed upon the pupils of a private school, and upon nearly a thousand teachers of public schools last year by a Southern Democrat, in a Southern State, and ask yourselves if the years have wrought no changes.

But when the war ended, we of the South were the poorest people in the civilized world. We staked everything unreservedly upon the decision of the sword, and lost. The intensity of the struggle is not realized by the people of the Northern States. A comparison between the men under arms during the Revolutionary war and during the late civil war illustrates this point. In 1776 the Colonies numbered 3,000,000, and never had more than 30,000 men under arms at one time; that is $\frac{30000}{3000000}$, $\frac{1}{100}$ of the population were under arms at once.

In 1861 North Carolina had 600,000 white inhabitants; 60,000 of them were under arms at one time—that is, $\frac{60000}{600000}$, $\frac{1}{10}$ of the population were under arms at one time—so that, in proportion to population, North Carolina was engaged ten times more intensely in the late war than our ancestors were in the war with England; and to illustrate what ten times any thing means, I call your attention to the fact that a race-horse only moves six times faster than a man in a rapid walk, and a railway train, at the overwhelming rate of forty miles an hour, moves only ten times faster than a man walking rapidly down the track; so that the speed of a railway train at forty miles an hour and of a man walking rapidly bear the same proportions to each other as North Carolina's share in the war between the States and the share of the Colonies in the war with England. And when the conflict ended in which we staked our all, we had nothing left but the ground we stood upon, and were deeply in debt besides.

The comparative wealth of the two sections of the United States is illustrated by the fact that in 1880 the taxable wealth of New York City was equal to that of Virginia, Kentucky, Georgia, and Texas.

The taxable wealth of Boston was equal to that of Virginia and Kentucky.

The taxable wealth of Rhode Island, with only one forty-seventh of the area, was equal to that of Georgia.

The taxable wealth of New York State, including New York City, was equal to that of the whole thirteen Southern States, with an extra State equal to Georgia thrown in for good measure.

In short, the Federal dollar started at a dollar in gold, went down to 33 cents, and then back to a dollar, and those who claimed it as their dollar became very rich; but the Confederate dollar, which started at a dollar in gold, went down to absolute zero, and staid there, and we were left with nothing but our manhood. And if those to whom the war was such a source of wealth should ever attempt to inaugurate another war involving the integrity of the Federal dollar—the dollar which we are now beginning to handle—we of the South, to whom the war was a source of much terrible poverty, will guard the integrity of the Federal dollar, if need be, with bullet and bayonet.

But with all our losses by the war, our manhood remained. In fifteen years after the war ended, with no basis of credit but the growing crop of each year (which has been mortgaged ahead ever since the surrender in order to raise means for its own cultivation), we had double the number of bales of cotton; we have taken a dollar's worth of cotton and manufactured it into coarser fabrics worth \$2, and thereby have forced the New England spinner to make finer fabrics, thus increasing the value of one dollar's worth of cotton to \$4.

It is safe to say that no conquered people ever showed such powers of recuperation. The example of France, after the Franco-Prussian war, is often referred to; but France lost very few men on the battle-field; they were all captured; France spent but little money on military equipment; she had very little military equipment; and so the money was all in the country, intact, to pay the German indemnity after the war was ended, and was actually produced for this purpose.

Another thing which I wish to mention, is the fact that we have no prejudice against Northern men or Northern ideas *per se*. There were recently five of my own former pupils learning the business of cotton-spinning at the same time in the mills of Lowell and Fall River, at ordinary mill-operatives' wages, and the fathers of these young men are our most prominent people, and were all slave-owners before the war. Again, the teachers in our public schools have gone to New England in large numbers (I can mention at least twenty-five myself) to inspect the public schools. Northern experts have superintended our teachers' institutes from year to year. After some weeks spent looking at the working of the public schools in Massachusetts, I was called upon at our University Normal School to tell about what I had seen. I said, "That, with nothing in the heavens above, the earth beneath, or the waters under the earth to build a prosperity upon, the people of Massachusetts are, per capita, the richest people in the world. The country produces nothing but granite and ice; and yet I was told that

the average per capita wealth of Boston is over \$1700, and of the whole State over \$1000; they have the best intercommunication in the world, the greatest distance of a man's house from a railroad station in Massachusetts being ten miles, and the average distance not being more than three miles, and they pay the highest per capita school tax in the world; and that it becomes us to find where the secret of this Samsonian strength lies."

And when some one said that I was turning "Yankee," I went on to say "that I had seen some other things. I saw a free-school house built with tax money which cost \$750,000; I saw the names of 100 free-school teachers, head masters of the Boston schools, who got nearly four-thousand-dollar salaries; I saw women (there are about 100 of them in Boston, free-school teachers) who get two-thousand-eight-hundred-dollar salaries. Now, there are," I said, "three hundred and fifty teachers present, and you know that you do not get more than an average of \$25 per month, and you don't get that for more than four months in the year; and you know further, that if you could superinduce a set of conditions under which the best man among you would have a chance at a four-thousand-dollar salary, as free-school teacher, \$1000 more than our governor gets, and the best woman among you a chance at a two-thousand-eight-hundred-dollar salary as a free-school teacher, \$300 more than our chief justice gets, if you could do this, you know very well that you would all turn Yankees unless you are idiots."

To illustrate further the feelings of our people, I wish to say that, at first, there was a good deal of prejudice in our minds against those who came from the North to teach the freedmen. Some of this prejudice was reasonable, some of it was not. Unreasonable prejudices have passed away. Six years ago the Virginia Educational Association, composed almost entirely of ex-Confederates, met in the buildings of the Hampton Normal Institute. Many of the members were entertained by the superintendent and his colleagues, and it was then that I first enjoyed the privilege of becoming acquainted with General Armstrong and his wonderful work.

About ten years ago a missionary of the Northern Presbyterian Church was driven by the climate from his work for the heathen in tropical Asia, and asked to be put into some mission field where the climate was not prohibitory. He was sent to North Carolina, and put in charge of a school for colored men.

He came to do good, not harm; to quiet the troubled waters, not to stir up the mire and filth; he came as a teacher, not as a carpet-bag politician; he came to work for God and for good, not for the Republican party, though he has voted the Republican ticket at every Presidential election since he came to the South.

Now, this Northern educator of colored men, this head of a negro school, is cordially received in any pulpit in the State, and is a favorite preacher with the young men attending the leading denominational college

of the Southern Presbyterian Church; and *young men and boys are more sensitive than our older men*. Further still, one of his daughters taught till her marriage, in the largest female school in North Carolina, and with very unusual success. Another daughter taught in the most successful female school in Virginia, where she was pressed to remain, but she resigned her position in Virginia to accept a position in a very prominent female school *in the same town in which her father teaches colored men*; and our people are much more sensitive about their girls than about their boys. I mention these things because I know them to be facts. I have seen them with my own eyes, and I have permission from the parties concerned to give the names, dates, and localities in full, if it is desired.* An ounce of fact like this is worth ten tons of theory based upon statements made in some sensational book or by some sensational newspaper scribbler, or upon the opinion of some one who rode through the South on a railroad train and thought the information thus gained was sufficient to base an authoritative opinion upon.

Again, the public schools for both races in Wilmington are in the hands of the same white superintendent, and this superintendent, the first man of Southern birth who ever had charge of the schools for both races in North Carolina, was a pupil of my own, and was teaching for me when he was called to take charge of the public-school work in Wilmington, our largest city, at the highest salary ever paid up to that time to a public-school teacher in North Carolina. The example set by Wilmington has already been followed by Charlotte and Winston.

While these things have nothing to do with the social relations of the races, which will regulate themselves, as social relations regulate themselves everywhere—"for the hand of Douglas is his own"—yet such facts as these must tend, I think, to correct misapprehensions which I found existing in the minds of Northern people, among whom I have spent several months within the last three years.

I wish to correct another misapprehension, which I found common among New England people, as to what we are doing ourselves for education. I take North Carolina and Massachusetts as the units of measure. In 1880 the taxable property of Massachusetts was \$1,600,000,000, and the school tax was \$4,000,000; 4,000,000 out of 1,600,000,000 is $\frac{4}{1600}$, $\frac{1}{400}$; that is, Massachusetts pays for school purposes \$1 a year out of every \$400 of taxable property. In 1880 the taxable property of North Carolina was \$160,000,000; the school tax was \$400,000; that is, \$4 out of every \$1600. $\frac{4}{1600}$, $\frac{1}{400}$; \$1 out of every \$400 of taxable property, which is exactly what Massachusetts gives; and it is much harder to give a little out of a little than to give much out of much. Our Lord emphasized this when he said that the widow's mite was more than the rich, of their abundance, had given:

*For further particulars address Rev. Dr. Mattoon, Charlotte, N. C.; Capt. J. B. Burwell, Raleigh, N. C.; and Rev. W. R. Atkinson, Charlotte, N. C.

and in the South since the war the school tax is but too often literally the widow's mite. And, what is more, ninety-nine hundredths of what is raised in North Carolina is paid by the white people, and three-sevenths of it goes to the children of the blacks. And besides the State tax, many of our towns tax themselves and keep up schools eight or nine months in the year; so that, as a matter of simple fact, four-sevenths of our population raise as much by taxation as seven-sevenths of the whole population in Massachusetts do on every one hundred dollars' worth of property, and tax themselves heavily besides to continue the schools after the public money is exhausted.

I came here to ask for national aid, and I mention these things to show that we are not paupers, but that we are doing much more for ourselves than the people of Massachusetts are doing for themselves, in proportion to our means, and are "carrying" the blacks besides, who contribute almost nothing to the school fund, and get three-sevenths of its proceeds.

And we have other terrible difficulties to contend with. We have 1,400,000 people in North Carolina (taking North Carolina and Massachusetts again as the units of measure), which is 300,000 less than the population of Massachusetts; but the area of North Carolina is seven times as great as the area of Massachusetts, and the difficulty of reaching so sparse a population is very great. And not only so, but in Massachusetts 900,000—more than half of the people—live in cities and towns of as much as 2000 inhabitants, while only 60,000—one twenty-third of the people in North Carolina—live in towns; and the rest—twenty-two twenty-thirds—live scattered over an area seven times as large as Massachusetts, larger than New York, and nearly as large as all New England, and many of them are 100 miles from a railway and 20 miles from a post-office, with its mail only once a week. That is, with only one-tenth of the money which Massachusetts has, North Carolina must reach seven times the area, which makes our difficulties seventy times as great as those of Massachusetts, even if area and money were the only factors.

Another great difficulty is the illiteracy of our people. I have been frequently called upon to talk to the people of my native State upon the subject of education, and when I get a set of North Carolina people together I talk very plainly, and tell them exactly what the situation is, as I see it. I say that there is one black fact which we must meet. The illiteracy of white people in North Carolina is somewhat greater (according to the census, of 1880) than anywhere else where God's sun shines upon the English-speaking man. But if a Virginian, a South Carolinian, a Tennessean, or a Yankee were to come to North Carolina and violate the law of courtesy (which is as much of a law of God as the law against murder or against stealing), by talking about our illiteracy, or about any other defect, however freely we may talk of it among ourselves, I would help to

put him in the horse-pond; and any one of you would do the same thing if a stranger were to make himself disagreeable by abusing your people.

Before the French Revolution there were 28,000,000 people in France, of whom 27,000,000 were illiterates; and look at the result.

In North Carolina, and, indeed, in the whole South, nearly half of our people, white and black, are illiterate; and while we do not expect any such calamity as befell France, we are too near the ragged edge when so large a proportion of those who at the polls decide the destiny of the country cannot read the votes they cast, and so are tools for demagogues, and we cannot afford to risk our prosperity and our lives upon such conditions. It is to wake up our people to their danger — to show them the rod they are cutting for their own smiting — that we talk to them as we do. And it is stirring them up. But we cannot permit any outsider to talk in that way.

And our people have been aroused. Our public schools are doing the best that can be done under such circumstances. We tax our dollar as heavily as Massachusetts taxes hers, as I have already shown, and yet we keep our public schools open only three months in the year, and pay the teachers, on an average, \$25 per month for their work, and they board themselves. By our constitution, which is a legacy of the period of reconstruction, we cannot tax our people more than so many cents on the dollar, and that limit has been reached. In the towns a local option tax is levied (understand that the words "local option" suggest public schools with *us*, and not whiskey, as with *you*), and very excellent public schools are kept open for nine months; but in the RURAL DISTRICTS, where all of our people live but about 60,000, the limit of taxation has been reached, and the schools cannot be kept open any more than three months in the year.

But our poverty — the fact that we have no accumulated capital, and that each prospective crop is made by a mortgage on itself, so that ever since the war we have been trying the difficult feat of pulling ourselves up by our own boot-straps, so to speak; all these things are smaller difficulties than the duality of our civilization — the presence of two races upon the same soil, and this duality we must look squarely in the face.

Ladies and gentlemen, a very large proportion of you are from the North. I came here to conciliate, not to offend you; but I tell you that the great mass of your people, however much you may think you know about it, are profoundly ignorant of the conditions in the South and of the relations between the races.

In the North one-sixtieth of the population are of African blood. In the whole South one-third are of African blood. In the Gulf States more

than one-half; in some States more than three-fifths, and in localities in all the former slave States nine-tenths of the population are of African blood. We know more of these people than you do; whatever may be the feeling toward them collectively, we have a kindlier feeling for them personally and individually than you have; we know how to work with them and for them better than you do. As a simple matter of fact, I have hardly ever known a Northern man, since the war, to get along with them as laborers, and I have not known a Northern woman, since the war, to get along with them as house-servants at all.

These people have deserved well of us. I say this everywhere and always. They have behaved with more quietness, and with less violence, than any people ever behaved before upon the face of the earth under circumstances in anywise similar. I was reared in a slave woman's lap; I was interested in slave property; several hundred freedmen have been employed in my business since the surrender, and I have never had an unkind word, nor have I ever lacked for a kindly service from one of them. The men who lead public sentiment in the South realize that the negro is the youngest child of civilization, and that it is our interest, as well as our duty, to aid in his development; and the history of the world does not show any other example of such development from savagery to civilization as among the Southern negroes.

Compare the negro as he is in the South to-day — the quiet, peaceable, industrious citizen, the labor of whose hands produces six million bales of cotton annually — compare him, I say, with what he was one hundred years ago; compare him with what his cannibal savage kindred are now in Africa; compare the Southern negro who has received nothing but the ballot from the United States Government, and who produces six million bales of cotton annually — compare him, I say, with the American Indian, whom the United States Government has had in its special charge for one hundred years, and on whom millions have been spent, and who produces absolutely nothing. Make these comparisons and ask yourselves if any savage race has ever shown such development in so short a time.

The Sandwich Islander alone can compare with the American negro in development; but while this development has been a blessing to him intellectually and morally, it has deprived him in a great measure of his powers of procreation; children are born to him no longer, and the race "is wearing awa' like snow wreathes in thaw" before the sun of civilization under which the Southern negro has increased in numbers as rapidly as he has intellectually and morally.

But the two races in the South must **BE DEALT WITH SEPARATELY**. The continued duality is an absolute necessity. The load of the country in the South must continue to be pulled by a double-horse team, so to speak, with the white horse "in the lead" and the black horse

on the "off side," to use our farmers' phrase, and, to change the figure, a European man with a thousand years of culture on his back, and especially an Anglo-Saxon man, God's king of men, will be and must be ahead of an African man with only a hundred years of culture on his back, and eighty of that spent in slavery, and any forced change of the relations will be fatal to the weaker race in the South, as force has been fatal to the weaker races always and everywhere, and nobody knows and acknowledges the fact more fully than the blacks themselves. The white and the black horse work very kindly together, without, to use our farmers' phrase again, even a "bearing-stick" between them; for they know that they are pulling the same load upon the same "double-tree," and they know that it takes them both to pull it. But you cannot grind the two horses up and make one huge-Bologna-sausage-white-and black horse of them.

Employers and employed, even of the same race, however harmonious their relations may be economically, occupy different social planes everywhere in the world, and when the race question comes in, as it does with the Anglo-Saxon man and the Irish man and especially with the Anglo-Saxon woman and the Irish woman in Massachusetts, with the Anglo-Saxon and the yellow man on the Pacific coast, or with the Anglo-Saxon and the black man and woman in the South, *it must settle itself* as it settles itself the world over. There can be no middle ground about it, until the flood of years deposits a middle ground from its current as the Nile or the Mississippi deposits its delta from its own waters.

In my intercourse with Northern people I have found a good deal of misapprehension on this very matter. They think that the white people have driven the negro out of the synagogue. But this is a great mistake. Though the youngest child of civilization, he is in one thing just as "smart" as Julius Cæsar. When Cæsar was crossing the Alps, one of his staff said that the little village through which they were passing, with all its disadvantages had this great advantage, that no one of its inhabitants had any ambition. "Yes," replied the great Cæsar, "but I would rather be first in this Alpine village than second at Rome." The colored man feels his race-inferiority. He knows that if he remains in the white church he must "take a back seat." If his child goes to the white school, he knows that his child will feel uncomfortable, no matter what the teacher or the other pupils think and feel about it, just as a half-grown, gawky boy feels uncomfortable in a company of gentlemen and ladies, however kindly their feelings may be to him; and so the colored man has simply moved his church to "Alpina," where he can be first without let or hindrance; and hard by his church is his school, where his child can be first without let or hindrance. It is as much against his nature for the Southern negro to worship in the white church, and for his child to learn in the white

school, as it is for the wandering Arab to live in a house or the Anglo-Saxon in a tent. The feeling was as distinct in Boston fifty years ago as it is now in the South; and it would be distinct in Boston to-day if there were negroes enough in Boston to have separate churches and schools. It is barely possible that it may be different in the South fifty years hence; but a physician does not ask what his patient's symptoms may be in fifty years; he asks what they are now, and treats the case accordingly. These social relations must be left to take care of themselves in the South as they are left to take care of themselves everywhere else in the world. Neither race will brook any interference in this matter, and yet, with all our race instincts, stimulated as they have been by circumstances, there is to-day less race prejudice in the South than in the North. Let me give you a practical example — not one that I read about, not one that I heard somebody else tell about; I have not dealt in a single such so-called "fact" since I began to talk to you. I have told you of things which I have seen with my own eyes. I will not refer to the way in which the Northern people have driven the Chinese, not only out of the synagogue, but out of the country; for that might seem political, and might be disagreeable; but I think I am safe in saying that there is scarcely a community in the North where a colored mechanic enjoys the rights of equal manhood as he does everywhere in the South to-day. If a contractor in Massachusetts or Michigan had twenty white bricklayers and twenty white carpenters employed, and were to employ five colored bricklayers and five colored carpenters at the same wages paid to the white men, would not the white men refuse to work with such a contractor? Now, I wish to tell you, not what I read about, or heard somebody else tell about, but what occurred on my own premises. All our buildings were burnt about two years ago. We employed a white contractor to rebuild them. White men and colored men, carpenters, bricklayers, painters, and common laborers worked together in the greatest harmony, at the same wages for the same kind of work. This could hardly have occurred in New England. Colored men got higher wages than white men doing the same work, if the colored men were better workmen. This could hardly have occurred in Michigan or Wisconsin. And what may seem stranger still to you Northern people, with your strong race prejudices, colored men and white men, with wages graded by skill, not by race, worked in perfect harmony together under our contractor's negro foreman or "boss carpenter;" a thing which could hardly have occurred in any Northern State.*

But this duality, indistinct as it is in some lines of activity in the South, is in other lines as distinct as the land is from the sea. The "hith-

*For particulars address T. C. Oakley, Builder and Contractor, Durham, N. C. Rev. Dr. Mattoon, Charlotte, N. C., told me that the same thing occurred during the erection of the new building at Biddle University.

erto shalt thou come, but no farther," is as distinct in the minds of the two races as the color is in their faces. And it is very expensive educationally. The decision is simply between two schools for a community or no school. There is no middle ground. And not only so, but the white people, who are so impoverished as not to be able to sustain respectable public schools for their own children, have taxed themselves of their own accord to sustain schools for the blacks.

The white people of North Carolina, as I have already said, pay ninety-nine hundredths of the taxes, and three-sevenths of the money raised goes to sustain the public schools for the blacks; and, besides this, we have, of our own accord, established separate normal schools to teach their teachers; we have, of our own accord, established a separate deaf and dumb institution for their mutes; and we have, of our own accord, built a costly asylum for their insane; in order to do this we have taxed ourselves up to the highest constitutional limit, and as heavily as Massachusetts taxes herself; and in consideration of our local-option taxes for graded schools, and in further consideration of the fact that nearly half of our population pay no taxes, the white people of North Carolina are to-day taxing their dollar twice as hard as the white people of Massachusetts are taxing their dollar for public schools, and yet we can keep our public schools open only three months in the year, and can pay the teachers only \$25 per month and they board themselves.

In these peculiar straits we cry for help. We could educate our own people, with our own means; but we cannot educate our own children even, when three-sevenths of the money raised in North Carolina and a much larger proportion in other Southern States, must go to educate the blacks, whom the United States Government armed with the ballot, without making any provision for giving them intelligence to use it. Is this just to us? Is it just to the blacks? Is it just to the country at large? As a matter of fact, we of the South are paying the heaviest war tax in proportion to our means which a people ever paid, to educate the children of another race, for whose presence among us we are not responsible, who were thrust into our citizenship without our consent, and for whose education we are doing so much, of our own volition, that when our own children cry to us for bread we have to give them a stone.

The United States Government, and the United States Government alone, is equal to the emergency. There is a surplus in the Treasury, and the constitutionality of appropriating such a surplus has already been settled, if precedent can settle it. The government has in effect endowed agricultural and mechanical colleges in almost every State in the Union with money's worth in public lands. Now, if the government can give and the States receive money's worth for higher education, it seems idle to object on constitutional grounds to the government's giving money for

the education of the masses, and especially for the education of the blacks, who will be benefited more than the whites by national aid. And we of the South feel that in previous benefactions by the government we have not had our share.

According to the American Almanac for 1879 the Northern States have received more than 70,000,000 acres of public lands which, at \$1.25 per acre, the government price, amounts to \$88,000,000, while the South has received only six and a half millions of acres, amounting in round numbers to \$8,000,000, a difference of \$80,000,000 in favor of the North, who have suffered no calamity, who have had no mass of illiterates added to their citizenship, whose prosperity has been uninterrupted, and where illiteracy prevails only among an inappreciable proportion of the population.

Some who favor the distribution of the surplus among the States say that the distribution ought to be made according to population and not upon the basis of illiteracy. Does not this objection seem futile to any reasonable man? In time of danger the army goes to the threatened point; the navy goes to the threatened point. When an epidemic prevails, the aid goes to the threatened point. Illiteracy is the point of extreme danger, and should not the aid be sent to the place where it is needed on the same principle which regulates the movements of the army or the navy, or of aid when epidemic or flood comes?

Some say that the States cannot be trusted with the distribution of the money. But the States *have* been trusted with the distribution of the proceeds of the public lands, and why not with a cash surplus? Every Southern State has a system of public instruction in successful operation, and no misappropriation of funds has occurred in any part of the South since the carpet-baggers were driven out. Some say that the colored people will not get their share; but they get their share now of all public moneys raised by taxation, though the whites pay ninety-nine hundredths of the taxes; and if we give them their per capita share of money, wrung from the impoverished white people by taxation carried by our own volition to the utmost limit allowed by the Constitution, we may surely be trusted to give them their share of money given by the government, more for their benefit than for ours, and more their due than ours, under all the circumstances.

Some say that the South has contributed but little to the national Treasury, and so has but little right to call for national aid. But in 1881, according to the report of the Commissioner of Internal Revenue, North Carolina paid in direct taxes \$2,479,362, and Massachusetts \$2,699,680, only \$200,000 more, with 300,000 more people and with ten times the taxable property. And North Carolina pays nearly twice as much as all New England, excluding Massachusetts, the figures being for North Carolina, in round numbers, \$2,400,000, and for all New England, excluding Massa-

chusetts, \$1,400,000. And while North Carolina pays nearly as much internal revenue yearly as Massachusetts, and \$1,000,000 more than all New England, excluding Massachusetts, with only one-tenth of the taxable property per capita, the difference is still more marked between North Carolina and Kansas. With a population a little greater than Kansas, North Carolina probably consumes as many goods which pay a tariff as Kansas, while North Carolina pays ten times as much internal revenue as Kansas, the figures being for North Carolina \$2,400,000, and for Kansas \$240,000 yearly, in round numbers, and we pay at the same time a very heavy voluntary tax for the gratuitous education of the wards of the nation, and are so strained to do it that our own children are neglected and are growing up in illiteracy around us.

But there are some limitations which we think ought to be made. The aid ought to be limited to communities who do something for themselves. Any system of relief which pauperizes those relieved is a curse in the guise of a blessing; a veritable wolf in sheep's clothing, a devil as an angel of light. Require each community to put down a dollar of their own and "cover" it with a dollar, or two dollars, or more if need be, from the national aid fund; but do nothing till the community which you intend to aid has done all it can for itself.

There is another limitation which seems to me ought to be insisted upon. Do not allow any of the national aid to be put into buildings. We do not want one dollar of it put into bricks; we want it all put into brains. I believe that the greatest mistake which has been made educationally, North and South, has been in endowing bricks instead of endowing brains. There are literally hundreds of communities in the South who determined to drive out the devil of ignorance; and so they made a grand effort, got a long subscription list and put a large sum of money into a showy school building, without providing a dollar to pay teachers; and for a while they enjoyed the vain delusion that a school-house is a school. But the devil of ignorance, like the unclean spirit that went out of the man in the parable, after walking through dry places seeking rest, findeth none, and he saith, I will return to my house whence I came out, and he findeth it "empty," it is true, but neither "swept nor garnished;" and so he goeth and taketh to himself seven other devils worse than himself—the devil of discontent, the devil of disappointment, the devil of misappropriated funds, and so on through the seven, and they enter in and dwell there, and the last state of that community is worse than the first. In order to emphasize this objection to endowing bricks instead of brains, I call your attention to the fact that at the first great reformation, the formation of Christianity in fact, our Lord and his immediate followers, the reforming and reformed element, left all the buildings and other church property in the hands of the unreformed element and preached from

house to house, in highway, field, and wilderness. In the second great reformation, Luther and his followers imitated the example of our Lord and his followers, and the church buildings and property were left a second time by the reformed in the hands of the unreformed. The same thing occurred again in the Wesleyan movement. The same thing occurred again in the free church movement in Scotland in 1837. I tell you if you endow teacherships—if you put a good teacher to work—a house will crystallize around him, good enough for all practical purposes, and as a practical proof of this I call your attention to the encouraging fact that in 1882 the public school property in North Carolina, backward as we are in many things, was worth twice as much as it was in 1881, according to the report of the superintendent of public instruction; and by the end of 1884 it is safe to say that it will be worth twice as much as it was in 1882. A snail builds his own house. An oyster secretes his shell from his own substance, and if a school cannot do as well as a snail or an oyster, we had better give up the business of public education.

Another limitation should be, it seems to me, that not a dollar should be paid in salaries to officials. We do not want any more revenue officers. The States have administered the proceeds of the land scrip amounting to nearly one hundred million dollars for higher education, and the States can surely administer a smaller sum for the education of the masses. The educational machinery of every State, and of every county of every State, is in running order, and is running at half speed in the South for want of motive power; put in the motive power in the shape of teachers' salaries, so as to increase the duration of the schools from three to six months, and the teachers' salaries from \$25 to \$50 per month, and the results would be marvellous.

Another limitation should be, in time. The aid, if given, ought to be temporary, so that our people may be stimulated to their utmost while the aid lasts, and thus they will not be emasculated by depending upon external aid for internal needs.

The need is the result of entirely anomalous conditions—the terrible prostration of the white people and their consequent inability to educate their own children, and the presence of six million illiterate blacks armed with the ballot, which they cannot read. These conditions make a crisis of momentous import, and neither whites nor blacks have, as yet, any accumulated resources, but must draw upon the future, year by year, by mortgaging the growing crop in order to get supplies to make it with. But the worst is past. Our people are aroused. The new education is abroad among us. The teachers of our common schools are visiting the Northeast and the Northwest in search of the best methods of instruction. Experts from the Northeast and Northwest have come in large numbers to preside over our normal schools and teachers' institutes in various parts

of the South, and many of our teachers are doing work of this kind in a way which would do them credit in any part of the Union.

The graded school movement, to which I have referred incidentally, has given a wonderful impulse to public education. These schools are established in almost every town of any considerable size, the proceeds of the regular school tax being supplemented by a local option tax, which supplies money enough to keep the schools in operation for nine months. The germ of this, the most important educational movement among us, is the Tileston Normal School, established in Wilmington, N. C., by Miss Bradley, almost immediately after the war, and sustained by the munificence of Mrs. Hemenway, of Boston. I doubt whether the same amount of money ever produced as great results, educationally, before. The success of Miss Bradley and her female colleagues convinced our people of two things which they had not realized before: 1st, that a public school could be made worthy of the patronage of our best people; and, 2d, that female teachers could do it. And now there are many of these "graded schools," presided over by a male superintendent as a rule, but taught almost exclusively by female teachers, and doing as good work, in the opinion of such a man as Dr. Mayo, of the *New England Journal of Education*, as any schools in the United States. Under all these circumstances, "the set time to favor Zion" has come.

With national aid for ten years, we can manage illiteracy, both of blacks and whites, ourselves; but, if we continue the unequal struggle for these most germinant ten years without the support which we are in a condition to use with the greatest effect now, our people will be discouraged, and there is danger that a darkness that will, sooner or later, make itself felt will envelop a people who only need temporary aid to put them where they can and will provide for themselves.

And the poverty of our people will, in one respect at least, give momentum to this great educational movement; for nowhere in the civilized world can the same class of teachers be commanded for as little money. In other countries the most cultured people, those who lead public sentiment, those who stand highest socially, cannot be induced, in any considerable numbers, to undertake the laborious business of teaching. But in the South hundreds of cultured men and thousands of cultured women, are reduced to such pecuniary straits that they are ready to do any respectable work which will yield them even the scanty pay which taxation and national aid combined will give to a public school teacher. This is especially the case with our women. There are very few avenues of employment open to them, and the pay they can earn is very small; but they are looking, as never before, for some honorable means of becoming self-supporting. I have been calling the attention of our people for several years to the fact that so many teachers

at the North and so few teachers at the South are women. Two years ago seven-eighths of all the teachers in public schools in Massachusetts were women, while only one-seventh in North Carolina, as a whole, were women, though in "graded schools," taken alone, fully six-sevenths of the teachers are women, which accounts for their excellent work for children, and their comparatively small cost; and the Tileston Academy at Wilmington, already referred to, was, I think, the first school of the kind in a Southern State. We wish to organize and utilize the God-given skill and earnestness of our women in the management of our school children in the COUNTRY SCHOOLS also (where twenty-two twenty-thirds of the children must be trained, if trained at all), as has been done already in the towns and teaching children is a business; in which the fingers of most men are all thumbs, the thumbs all elbows, and the elbows are cut off at the shoulder joint. If we had teacherships paying \$500 a year, the best and most cultured women in the South could be commanded to do the work of public instruction in the country schools, as they are already doing it in the graded schools in the towns, and this is the only hope for the twenty-two twenty-thirds of our population; for only one twenty-third live in towns. Furthermore, no educational movement can be successful till the work is done by native teachers; and, as I have already said, a better class of native teachers can be commanded to-day in the South and for less money, than anywhere else in the civilized world. But in order to prepare this large body of prospective teachers to be most efficient, NORMAL TRAINING by experts must be provided for. Some of these prospective teachers, especially among our young women, are already well equipped as far as a knowledge of subjects is concerned. Brains, intelligence, and enthusiasm can be commanded, and these will make vastly better teachers without any special normal training than all the normal training of all the normal schools, without brains, intelligence, and enthusiasm. But a large proportion of those who must do the teaching, if it is done at all, lack the necessary knowledge, both of subjects and of methods, and they have no money to pay for such knowledge. If schools of repute among us, where *subjects* are already successfully taught, could teach *methods* in normal "annexes," presided over by one trained specialist to each such school, (just as military tactics are taught in schools of repute North and South by specialists detailed for the purpose from the U. S. Army and paid by the Government to do this quasi military-annex work), if some such arrangement as this could be made, so as to utilize and supplement the educational work among us in which our people have confidence, and to direct it towards training teachers, the greatest good could probably be done soonest, most cheaply, and most permanently. But schools of repute in the South are almost all straitened financially, and such of them as are willing to do any gratuitous work are already

so overburdened with the *regular* instruction of non-paying *pupils* that they cannot establish efficient normal classes for the *special* instruction of non-paying *teachers*. The States can do no more than they are doing in the way of summer institutes, lasting only four or five weeks: and unless continuous normal training is provided for in some way at points numerous enough to be reached at small cost and without tuition fees, national aid will lose fully one-half of its value, and probably two-thirds of its value, for lack of teachers to administer it who know methods as well as subjects.

Such colored men and women as General Armstrong, at Hampton, has inspired with the spirit of the Almighty God should be enabled to train their own race, and, if the pay were sufficient, by degrees our best white people, who, in many localities, have labored for years in the religious training of the colored people in Sunday-schools, etc., would become interested in their public school work, and such schools, like mission schools in heathen lands, without disturbing the social relations of teachers and taught, would do much to secure harmony and to cultivate kindness between the races.

As proof of the personal interest which our best people are now taking in the colored schools, I beg you to note the fact, already referred to, that in as many as three of our largest towns in North Carolina, the graded schools for both races are managed by the same white superintendent, and the additional facts, that our most prominent physicians are instructing a class of colored medical students in Shaw University, Raleigh, N. C., and that the son of a prominent clergyman and doctor of divinity of the Southern Presbyterian Church, has been giving instruction to the colored men in Biddle University, Charlotte, N. C., and that the principal of one of our most successful private schools, who for seven years has been a teacher in the University Normal School, is to take charge of the Colored Normal School at New Berne in August.*

How grandly, then, under all these circumstances, can the General Government show the world, by this appropriation, the estimation in which education is held in the Great Republic! How grandly can the General Government endorse the labors of the thousands of hard worked and poorly paid teachers, that noble army of martyrs, who do so much for others and so little for themselves. How grandly can the General Government supplement the liberality of benevolent people in the North, who, from their private resources, have given more than \$10,000,000, since the surrender, for the education of illiterates in the South.

The war between the States is one of the grandest dramas of all the ages. Its results have been momentous. It advanced the civilization of

* For particulars, address Dr. Richard H. Lewis, Kingston, N. C.; President of Biddle University, Charlotte, N. C.; and President of Shaw University, Raleigh, N. C.

this country wonderfully. We are to-day a century ahead of what we would have been without it. The clash of arms ceased nineteen years ago; but the war will not be really ended till the leprosy of illiteracy is removed from the white people whom the war impoverished, and from the blacks whom it enfranchised and armed with the rights of citizenship. What a grand ending of the war forever, what a grand dropping of the curtain upon the grandest drama of the grandest century of all the ages, for the United States Government to make this grand appropriation for education. Let this great act be done. Let the sun of the nineteenth century set in this splendid radiance, making the evening of the century

“ One of those ambrosial eves

A day of tempest sometimes leaves.”

THE SUPPLEMENTING OF THE WAR.

BY ALBERT SALISBURY.

Superintendent of Education for the American Missionary Association.

That is not a bad enemy which being a victor becomes a friend, making kindness the sequel of defeat. I well remember how my boyish mind was impressed by Whittier's little ballad, "The Conquest of Finland," as it came to me in the newspaper many years ago.

"Out spake the ancient Amtman, at the gate of Helsingfors:
'Why comes this ship a-spying in the track of England's wars?'

"God bless her," said the coast-guard, "God bless the ship, I say.
The holy angels trim the sails that speed her on her way!

"'Where'er she drops her anchor, the peasant's heart is glad;
Where'er she spreads her parting sail, the peasant's heart is sad.

"'Each wasted town and hamlet she visits to restore;
To roof the shattered cabin and feed the starving poor.

* * * * *

"'And so to Finland's sorrow the sweet amend is made,
As if the healing hand of Christ upon her wounds were laid him!'"

Surely no such hand of healing ever followed the hand of violence, except the spirit of Christ moved the hand. If any man would have assurance that the Christian idea is gaining mastery over the world, let him study the history of wars, how they are waged and how they are supplemented. Let him begin with the Wars of the Assyrian monarchs, come on to the Roman Conquests, to the Thirty Years' War, and compare all these with the Civil War of the United States. I assert without hesitancy that no great war in human history was ever waged with so little of brutality or barbarity, or accompanied by such acts of Christian ministry and alleviation, or followed within so short a time by such a degree of respect and friendliness between the contestants, as was our Civil War of 1861-5.

I sat once under a flag of truce with a Confederate lieutenant while he assured me in terms more emphatic than reverent that he would "teach

his children's children to hate the Yankees." But I am sure he has not done it. He has relented ere this, and forgotten all about it.

With this by way of striking the key-note, let me call your attention to certain ways in which the Christian element of the successful North has been making "sweet amends" to the overpowered South, and helping to turn defeat into blessing.

What has the North done in the South since 1865?

It did some rasping things in a political way, it must be confessed,—things which, whether they made for ultimate good or evil, created a present bitterness that left no room in the mouth for any other taste.

At the same time, almost unconsciously to the recipients, lessons were taught by these same "carpet-baggers" of business thrift and method which have come to a rapid and successful fruitage, a fact on which I should like to enlarge with corroborative detail, did my present purpose permit.

Deeds, too, of sympathetic and kindly charity have not been wanting, such as lightened the miseries of the great yellow fever epidemic of 1876.

These things I may barely hint; but my theme is a movement greater and more fundamental than those of politics, business, or physical ministry.

At the close of the war, two great diseases rested on the South more heavily than did the plagues on Egypt,—*poverty* and *ignorance*. The *first*, except so far as it was a special and transitory result of the war, must find its cure, if anywhere, in the cure of the second. And this second radical disorder was most wide and deep. All the black population, and a very great share of the white, lay in a state of intellectual and moral destitution so dense and hopeless that a clear perception of its breadth and depth, at that time, would have been a misfortune, as tending to paralyze effort. And, no uncommon thing, the patient did not understand its own ailment. Smarting with the stings of defeat, rasped by its poverty, a disease easy of apprehension, the South was in no trim for an immediate grapple with the covert malaria which so threatened its future.

Now behold what happened. Those very men, extremists, enthusiasts, "fanatics," who had formed the backbone of the abolition movement, veritable John the Baptists of the era which has now opened upon us, became the dauntless leaders of an educational movement which was the natural sequel and supplement of their first crusade.

I know not which most to admire, the intrepidity or the wisdom of those men. They were partially blind; but the leaders of great renovating movements need to be so. Their zeal was not always tempered by wisdom; but if they had been of the prudent ones they could not have wrought at all. They did not then realize that the need of such help was

not confined to the colored race. But to the work and the need as they saw it, they gave "their lives, their fortunes, and their sacred honor."

Turning now from generalities, I will try to set forth some tangible details of this healing and saving work in its practical operations and results. The first organization to undertake educational work in the South was the American Missionary Association. This society was organized in 1846, and had its origin in the slavery struggle. It was composed of those who could not endure the compliant attitude of other missionary societies toward slavery; and thus it gathered naturally into its constituency the class of men known as abolitionists.

When the war opened and camps of colored refugees began to form about the national military posts, it truly seemed as if the American Missionary Association "had come into the kingdom for such a time as this;" and it entered at once upon its providential work.

The first school ever opened for the ex-slaves of the United States was near Hampton, Va., under the guns of Fortress Monroe, on September 17, 1861. This was the beginning, not only of the far-famed Hampton Institute, but also of a work that may be called national in its scope. The work carried on among refugees not yet recognized as free men, and under the wing of the Union army, grew rapidly; and in 1864 the Association had in the South 250 teachers and missionaries.

In 1862, a number of Freedmen's Aid Societies were formed, first in Boston, then in New York, and in several Western cities. In 1865, these societies had in the field over 600 teachers. In 1866, they were all combined into the American Freedmen's Union Commission; but this soon began to disintegrate and was finally dissolved in 1869, the work having passed into the hands of the denominational agencies. The American Baptist Home Missionary Society took up work among the negroes in 1864; the Presbyterians and Episcopalians in 1865; and the Freedmen's Aid Society of the Methodist Episcopal Church began operations in 1866.

With emancipation as a fixed fact and the war drawing to a close, the government also put its shoulder to the wheel through the organization known as the Freedmen's Bureau. This had many other burdens to carry besides that of school work; yet in its first year, 1865-6, it reported 975 teachers and 97,000 pupils. In 1869, the number had increased to 2500 teachers and 250,000 pupils. This work, though so wide-spread, was only temporary and, in a certain sense, superficial. Its swarms of eager pupils met under great disadvantages, and were, of course, taught only the barest rudiments of an education,—seldom more than "the three R's," and only a smattering of them.

One most important legacy of the Bureau to the freed people, consisted in the large number of plain but commodious school-houses built by it in every important town of the South. But for the providential

erection of these houses, the work of education among the negroes, whether public or charitable, could not possibly have attained its present proportions.

The Freedmen's Bureau wound up its affairs in 1870, leaving the missionary societies, which had co-operated with it during the period of its existence, to carry alone, for a time, the burden of enlightening five millions of people suddenly come into the estate of freedom and citizenship without any preparation for either. I say left to carry it alone; for the public school systems of the Southern States, enacted in 1868, and thereabouts, had not yet come into any efficient operation for either whites or blacks.

Nor did the churches flinch from such an overwhelming task; but have continued from that day to this to pour from half a million to a million dollars a year into the South, applying it through the aid of a small army of self-sacrificing men and women, to the point of greatest need, doing for the South a saving work which it was not yet able or willing to do for itself, the upbuilding in morality and intelligence of its most needy and undeveloped class.

This work, carried on now for over twenty years without intermission, has undergone a gradual change in its character; so that the work of to-day and that of fifteen or twenty years ago constitute two very distinct phases, the old and the new.

The early work in "Bureau" days, was of necessity a primary work; all were beginners. The whole race, just released from bondage, looked upon education as the secret of the white man's power; and old and young flocked to the school-rooms. Learning to read was the main business.

But the old people, in time, found the acquisition of knowledge attended by unexpected difficulties, subjective and objective, and largely abandoned the pursuit. The more favored youth pressed on beyond the spelling-book. The public school systems of the South came forward, at last, with some sort of primary instruction. The work of teaching the public schools for colored people was remanded to their own race. But there was no place whatever, in the South, where colored teachers could be prepared for their work except in the missionary schools. And so a higher and multiplicative work was thrown upon those schools. They were compelled to withdraw, largely, from primary work and to assume a more permanent character in the centres of population.

The withdrawal of the Freedmen's Bureau and this change of policy and concentration on the part of the societies marked an epoch; and the generation which came out of slavery now marks time past by two eras,— "when freedom came in" and "when the Yankee teachers went away." But the Yankee teachers had not really gone away; and while the work was now restricted in the numbers of pupils directly reached, it was greatly increased in its secondary results, and the missionary societies became more truly than ever the educators of the freed race.

The American Missionary Association, with wise foresight, began the establishment of normal schools as early as 1866; but it is only within the last few years that much has been done to give any of the missionary schools a distinctively professional character. The word "Normal" was very liberally and loosely applied to any school from which pupils went forth to teach. But this is now changing, under the leadings of experience and the spirit of progress.

Colleges, with schools of theology, law and medicine, have risen by slow and steady growth to respectable estate; and there is now scarcely a Southern State in which the negro may not obtain as liberal an education as his white neighbor, all of which is due, directly or indirectly, to the Northern missionaries.

The new movement toward industrial education, moreover, has not failed to reach these missionary schools, but is receiving their special attention and encouragement; and I venture to predict that in a few years more they will have given it a more practical and useful development than any other schools in our land.

That what I have said and what I am about to say may be the better appreciated, let me pause here to present some figures indicative of the magnitude of this work of the Christian North in and for the South.

For the school year, 1882-3, the American Missionary Association fostered in the South, including two grown-up and self-supporting children, Hampton Institute and Berea College: 9 collegiate and professional institutions; 12 Normal and High schools; and 42 schools of lower grade, with a complement of 260 teachers, and at a cost, including improvements, of over \$300,000.

The Freedmen's Aid Society of the Methodist Episcopal Church, in the same year, had, including its white work, 13 collegiate and professional institutions, and 22 seminaries with 162 teachers, at a cost of \$142,500. The Baptist Home Missionary Society had 12 schools and 78 teachers, costing about \$100,000; the Presbyterians had 7 institutions and over 50 parochial schools; while work to a more limited extent was carried on by the Episcopalians, the Free Baptists, and the Friends.

The educational work of the missionary societies may be summed up roughly at 180 schools, mostly of the higher grades, with 650 teachers, and an outlay of \$750,000. The number of pupils for the year was between 25,000 and 30,000, a small contingent, truly, from 6,000,000 people; but it must not be forgotten that these are mostly young people preparing for teaching and the ministry, the coming leaders of their race.

The sum expended, three quarters of a million annually, is also small as compared with the sums proposed to be devoted to public education by the various bills now before Congress,—small even as against the aggregate amount now expended on public schools by the Southern States themselves; but when we consider its source, that it is a free-will offering from

the mites of the children and the poor as well as from the abundance of the rich ; and when we observe the manner of its application in the preparation of leaders, the doing of what the States are not yet ready to do, the supplementing and vitalizing of public effort by disinterested Christian benevolence, it loses all aspect of smallness, and stands out as one of the grand facts of a Christian and humanitarian age.

It may be that some will say, " Why should such a draft upon the revenues of charity still go on? Why should so heavy an annual tax, the income at six per cent. of \$12,500,000, still be laid on the Christian givers of the North? The South is now rehabilitated in the garments of prosperity and sitting in her right mind ; the public schools should now assume the education of all her children, black or white."

This has a plausible sound ; but those who reason thus have seen but a little way into the whole truth of the case. The need and urgency are not less now than heretofore, but greater than ever ; and how great, no words of mine can possibly express. The mark made on the great, dark mass of illiteracy and moral degradation in the South is as yet but a scratch. " A little knowledge is a dangerous thing ;" and the Freedman is at a most critical stage in his development. No greater calamity could happen to the nation at this time than for its good people to sit down in content, thinking that matters are now well enough with him and his. All the agencies that can be combined, whether public or private, national or voluntary, can scarcely equal the emergency.

And we must not count too largely, yet, upon the Southern public schools for results. One who should visit a few towns like Charleston, Nashville, and Atlanta, and be kindly chaperoned through the city schools, would rightly open his eyes and take courage. But outside of these few principal cities, the public school bears little resemblance to what we of the North mean by that term. It is taught, in general, for but three or four months of the year, often in mid-summer, in some decayed hut or windowless cabin, by a poorly paid and poorly qualified teacher. Little is taught but the old Webster's, or " blue-backed " spelling-book, the fourth reader, and the multiplication table ; and what is done is badly done.

There is a dire and almost fatal lack of school-houses. In no Southern State, so far as I have learned, can any community tax itself to build a school-house, except that the large cities may get permission by act of the legislature. A school-house, therefore, can be secured only by voluntary gift or contribution. Consider what effect such a fact would have had upon the development of education at the North. There is, moreover, as yet no corps of trained teachers, and next to no provision for creating such a body. The teachers generally have no ideal of what a good primary school should be ; for they have never even seen such a school. (Of course, I am not speaking of exceptions, but of majorities,— not of

cities, but of the country at large.) And probably not much more than one-half of the population is reached by even such agencies as these.

I cite these facts not in any sense of reproach to the Southern people. On the whole, they are doing what to them seems the best that their circumstances permit; and the administration of the public schools is quite fair to the negro. Indeed, the cry is now and then raised by some moss-backed relic of the old regime that "the niggers are getting all the benefits of the public schools," which, if true, as it is not, would not be specially discreditable to the "brother in black."

The trouble does not lie in "the color line," but in the general conditions. The State *must*, as men reason, apply its efforts to the lower stratum, the common schools; it has few qualified teachers and small facilities for making more; and so the labor of making bricks without straw must go on indefinitely, unless help comes from without. This help is coming from a variety of sources; but to the colored people it must come chiefly through the benevolence of Northern philanthropists.

It is the function, therefore, of the missionary schools to prepare and send out a body of trained colored teachers to meet the increasing demand and give efficiency to the public schools for their race. It is a second and most important function to educate to a reasonable degree a body of colored ministers who shall displace the old-time preachers, always grossly ignorant and often grossly immoral, and who shall be able to preach and exemplify the gospel in its fulness, Christian morality as well as Christian faith. There is also, of course, the education for business and the remaining professions, especially that of medicine. And I can count on my fingers all the schools in the South, outside of the missionary systems, in which a colored man can get anything above a common school training.

But there is another function of the greatest moment. These schools have been and are the beacon light and the touchstone of the race. They have shown to the negro himself and to his former master that mind is mind and man is man, whatever the color of the skin, proving the capacities of the race to learn anything that men can learn. The man of the South could not enter upon the work of educating the Freedman until the missionaries had demonstrated what he did not before believe, that a negro *can* be educated.

Again, these schools have often set a standard of efficiency in instruction which has jostled and stimulated all the school work about them. "It is a shame," said the people of a Southern city, "that the negroes have better schools than our own children have;" and they bestirred themselves. This work has been silent and almost unconscious. Those who have been the recipients of its influence would be, perhaps, the last to admit the fact, even to themselves; but the fact remains.

There is now looming up before these schools a new problem, that of

industrial education, or such a modification of former modes of education as shall more perfectly fit the infant race, for it is a race in its childhood, to harmonize with its environment, relieving manual labor from the stain placed upon it by slavery, and opening doors now closed. This race is, after all, to live mainly by the sweat of its brow and the hardening of its hands. But shall it be kept by want of skill and training in a sort of Coolie caste, fit only for the mule whip and the cotton hoe, or shall it be taught and helped to force its way into the higher trades and the walks of skilled artisanship? The answer to this question lies mainly with the missionary schools. When they have shown what can be done, and how to do it, the Southern public may by that time be ready to take up the work for itself.

There are still other problems for which the key must be found; and not the least of these is: How shall the colored young woman be brought into a position of greater safety? How shall she be rescued from the wolf that lies in wait for her at every corner from the going down of the sun to the rising thereof? How shall she be brought to see life seriously, and to wisely mother the coming generations of her race?

I know great Northern hearts in the Southland who are bowed with wrestling over this problem, while the great public passes them scornfully or unheedingly by. I tell you, brethren, when the war was over and the constitutional amendments were registered, the work was only begun. We had given political freedom and rights to a race; we had yet to give intellectual and, most of all, *moral* freedom, the attributes of Christian manhood and womanhood, attributes that come not by war or lightning stroke, but with slow growth like the fruit-bearing tree that is digged about and watered.

Five years may end an epoch-making war; but its supplementing and finishing needs many years. Wise citizens are coming to realize this fact; and perhaps the most important measure now pending in Congress has its origin in this perception, combined with the feeling that the nation in its organic form should be the conservator of its own future.

Should wisdom prevail and millions annually be devoted to the cure of illiteracy, what would be the effect on the missionary schools? Would they be superseded and no longer needful? By no means. They would not be relieved of a single burden or responsibility. When public education is extended and improved at the South, by whatever agency, the demand for colleges, for normal schools, for industrial schools, for moral and Christian training and character building, will only be increased and intensified. Not one penny of relief will come to the missionary schools by the passage of any of the "National Aid" bills now pending. National Aid will increase our opportunities but lift no burdens.

Thus far, I have spoken of this educational mission-work almost wholly as related to the colored people. But the question is often asked,

"Why do you work for the blacks alone?" "Is not the 'poor white' class just as needy?" To this, the answer has usually been, "Our schools are for all who will come, irrespective of race or previous condition." But the feeling is growing that this answer does not cover the whole ground, and that the time has come for some widening of reach. The Freedmen's Aid Society is already supporting a considerable number of institutions attended only by whites; and the American Missionary Association is now pushing into the mountain districts of Kentucky and Tennessee where the population is almost exclusively white and most bitterly in need of efficient Christian schools.

In dwelling thus at length upon the work of the Northern churches, I have not been forgetful of other agencies working along side of them. First among these, is the well-known "Peabody Fund," a most wisely administered benefaction, which since 1868 has put into the work of Southern education a yearly average of \$91,000. While limited to no race or color, much the greater part of this has, properly enough under all the circumstances, been devoted to the white people, largely by way of stimulating the growth of public schools; and in the results of this the blacks have, of course, shared. Besides this, the Vanderbilts have given \$1,125,000 to the white university at Nashville which bears their name; Hon. Geo. I. Seney has given \$200,000 to white colleges in Georgia; Paul Tulane, of Princeton, N. J., left, in 1882, a property estimated at \$1,000,000 to found a university for whites in New Orleans; and, in the same year, Jno. F. Slater, of Connecticut, gave \$1,000,000, the income of which is devoted to advance the education of the emancipated blacks. Mrs. Heminway, of Boston, has spent \$100,000 in establishing and maintaining the famed Tileston School at Wilmington, N. C.

Put all these princely gifts together, and we have a principal of nearly five and a half millions, which, added to the twelve and a half millions on which the churches pay six per cent. into Southern schools, gives an aggregate of eighteen million dollars as the endowment fund now set apart by Northern beneficence for the helping of the South and the supplementing of the war.

And, now that I have got into figures again, let me try to sum up the total outlay in this direction since 1861.

The Freedmen's Bureau expended for schools alone,	\$5,250,000
The American Missionary Association, (including Hampton and Berea), over	6,000,000
The Freedmen's Aid Society,	1,350,000
The American Baptist H. M. Society,	1,000,000
Presbyterian and other denominations (estimated),	2,000,000
Private individuals to date,	5,500,000
Total,	<u>\$21,100,000</u>

As this includes no estimate of the expenditure by the undenominational societies between 1862 and 1869, to say nothing of a hundred minor and unknown sources, the estimate that \$25,000,000 has been expended in this work of helping the South is not an extravagant one. Let that fact stand as illustrating the truth of my opening proposition.

In closing, I venture to touch for one moment on what may seem rather delicate ground. How has the South received all this "ministry of education"? Has she ever been able to say with the Amtman of Helsingfors,

"We braved the iron tempest
That thundered on our shore;
But when did kindness fail to find
The key to [South-land's] door?"

My residence in the South, short as it has been, has brought me to a respectful and kindly estimate of the better class of the Southern people. The lower class there have no advantage over the lower classes elsewhere; only they are of closer kin to the better classes, and so have more recognition. They are not tramps nor the scum of foreign nations, but only home-keeping Anglo-Saxons who have become so narrowed and intensified in certain mental and moral habits by ignorance and isolation and the indirect results of "the peculiar institution," that they have become unlovely to those of unlike antecedents. From this class our educational missionaries had little to expect but misunderstanding, suspicion, and active persecution. From the better class they got, and still get, simply social ostracism, the most severe letting alone that history records.

I say this in no feeling of harshness. Those who have never felt the hot plowshare of war driving through their own homes, in one stroke annihilating property and overthrowing the most cherished political and social ideas, can not begin to conceive what the South had to face in the years following the war. Coming atop of all other visitations, the education of their former chattels seemed like adding insult to injury; and it goes without saying that our Southern kinsmen are not the people to submit kindly to either. Prejudices which are the outcome of social systems and of generations passed in one way of thinking wear away slowly, very slowly, it seems to the victims. There are still thousands of men in the South who believe that it is dangerous and culpable to educate the negro, and regard with intense dislike and scorn those who attempt it. But they are not *all* the people, and the day is coming—its heralds are within our sight and hearing—in which, with a better understanding of the truth of things, the native magnanimity of the men of the South will lead them to say, "Behold, these were our brethren, and we knew it not!"

NEGRO EDUCATION; ITS HELPS AND HINDRANCES.

BY PROFESSOR CROGMAN.

Mr. President, Ladies and Gentlemen: Members of the National Educational Association: The first speaker to-night told you that the negro is the youngest child of civilization, and I appear before you at this very late hour as a striking illustration of that fact. Nevertheless, I appreciate most heartily the invitation extended to me to speak before you with regard to the educational interests of my people in the South; nor can I well suppress within me the feeling that this act of courtesy on your part was prompted by a generous consideration for a race long obscured but now hopefully struggling into light under the benign influences of Christian liberty. Surely, too, it will be encouraging to that race to think that notwithstanding all the discouragements of the past, notwithstanding all the embarrassments, notwithstanding all the misgivings and speculations in regard to its intellectual and moral capacity, it has nevertheless within twenty years of freedom been found worthy of recognition by you and given to-day several representatives among the educators of this great nation. Verily the world has been moving, and we have been moving in it, but whatever may have been the advancement of the race within these years, whatever its progress, it would ill become me, to speak of it in a boastful manner, for that advancement, that progress, is due as much, I suspect, to your generous assistance as to our earnest endeavors. As a race we have been greatly helped in our struggles up towards a higher and better life, helped from many and from various directions, helped by the nation, the state, and the church, helped by individuals and helped by organizations, helped in money and helped in prayers; in a word the history of the nineteenth century does not present a page more luminous, a page more creditable to our civilization, than that on which are recorded the benevolences of the American people to their brother in black. As a representative of the race, I take very great pleasure in making, before you to-night this grateful acknowledgment. Nor would we, on the other hand, have you ignore the fact that we have also helped ourselves. Freedom was a great educator to the negro, as it has usually been to other people. Indeed it must ever be the base of all true education. To build upon anything narrower would be useless, for when you begin to educate a human being it is hard to tell to what altitude he may rise. Let him feel that the

earth is beneath him, God above him, and nothing in the intermediate space to check his growth or chill his aspirations, and then you may begin to teach him the alphabet.

Many things doubtless have come to the negro in this country in the inverted order, but his freedom and his education, I think, in the natural. Under the inspiration of the former and in the light reflected from the latter he has been enabled during the last two decades to learn quite a number of things about himself and other people, and has been led to the discovery of this simple but solemn truth, namely, that whatever may be the number of his friends and however unbounded their generosity, a true and manly independence can only be reached by self-exertion. How this discovery has affected his character and influenced his actions is apparent, I think, to any candid and observant mind. It may be seen, I think, in his desire to acquire landed property, to own some spot of ground upon which he can stand up erect and which unencumbered he may transmit to posterity. It may be seen in his efforts for more and better education.

Never was there a time in the history of this country when there were so many colored children in the schools as there are to-day. Never was there a time when the colored people, independent of State aid, supported so many private schools for the education of their children as they are supporting to-day. Indeed it is not uncommon now to find, even in the rural districts of the South, here and there, settlements where the three months' summer school supported by the State, is supplemented by a three months' winter school supported by the parents. One of the very best graded schools in the city of Atlanta, a school that would reflect no discredit on the city of Madison, one of the very best graded schools, with kindergarten attached, taught by an efficient corps of white lady teachers from the North, consisting of from four to five hundred pupils annually, and annually sending away from its doors scores of applicants for admission, has for the last six years been supported by the colored citizens of Atlanta, as an independent school, partly because the educational facilities afforded by the city of Atlanta have not been quite adequate to the demands made upon it for instruction, and partly because of the superiority of the work that has ever been done in that school.

From one who has a right to know, I learned that within the last six years the colored people of Atlanta have paid into that school for the education of their children between eighteen and twenty thousand dollars. Surely this looks a little like effort on the part of the negro to help himself to an education. I am informed that similar schools exist in other large cities of the South. I know that they do exist in Charleston and Savannah.

Last year in the four institutions of higher learning, planted in Atlanta through Northern benevolence, there were in round numbers twelve hundred students. Of these the Atlanta university enrolled 310, the Clarke

university, 222, the Baptist seminary for males about 140, and the Baptist seminary for females 500; but Atlanta is only one of the great centres of education to-day in the South. There is Nashville literally girdled by institutions of learning. There is New Orleans. Indeed you will find to-day in every Southern State one or more institutions for the higher training of negro youth, and the very fact that all these institutions are more or less crowded annually; and the very fact that a constant appeal goes out from them to Christian philanthropy for more buildings, for better accommodations, are proofs conclusive, I think, that the negro not only appreciates the advantages held out to him, but is even exerting himself to enjoy them.

Dr. Ruffner, for fully ten years, I think, superintendent of public instruction for the State of Virginia, in one of his reports bore this testimony to the negro. He says: "He wants to do right, and is the most amiable of races." The negro craves education, and I believe his desire has increased, it certainly has not diminished. He makes fully as great sacrifices to send his children to school as the laboring classes of the whites.

The civilization of the race is progressing even faster than its thoughtful friends anticipated. I turn for a moment from the school to the church, where these evidences of self-help are equally striking, if not more so. To be brief and to confine myself to accurate knowledge, I will confine myself to the work done by the denomination with which I am connected. Immediately after the close of the war the Methodist Episcopal Church entered the South and began her work among the colored people: to-day she has among them a membership of 200,000. Twenty years ago, and for many years after, every church among the colored people was supported, either in whole or in part, by funds from the missionary society; to-day it is safe to say that very nearly one-half of them are self-supporting. In the conference included within the State of Georgia we have 15,000 members and about 100 churches, not more. Of these churches fifty-six are self-supporting.

I have dwelt on these particulars, because, unfortunately, there still live in this country some persons who, reading negro history with their prejudices rather than their eyes, deny us the credit for even the little we have accomplished for ourselves and persist in holding us up to this country as that abnormal baby which never grows, which never can grow, and which the American people must nurse for all time.

In the *North American Review* for this very month, Senator Morgan, of Alabama, in a discussion of the future of the negro has this remarkable passage: "For fifteen years every means that Congress could devise have been supplied to the negro race to enable them to attain a condition which will protect them in all the rights, privileges, and liberties that are enjoyed by the whites. To the personal and political power of the ballot

have been added the guardianship of the Freedmen's Bureau, the Freedmen's Bank and its branches, the civil rights statutes, and all the power of tyrannical courts to enforce their alleged civil rights, and still they are no stronger as a race, and probably no better as individuals than they were at the beginning of these efforts." I say this is a remarkable statement—remarkable because coming from a United States senator who ought to be better informed with regard to the condition of a people in the midst of whom he was born, and now lives. He cannot see that we are any stronger as a race to-day, or any better as individuals than we were fifteen years ago, and that, too, in the face of the following array of facts which a few months ago were widely circulated through the medium of the press.

"The colored people have nearly one million children at school, publish over eighty newspapers (and I have learned since that they publish over 200), furnish nearly 16,000 teachers and about 15,000 students in the high schools and colleges; about 2,000,000 members in the Methodist and Baptist churches; own 680,000 acres of land in Georgia alone, and 5,000,000 in the whole South. The increase in the production of cotton since emancipation has been one million bales per year, or one-third more than when working under the lash. They had deposited in the fraudulent Freedmen's Bank fifty-six millions of dollars. Besides this, colored men have engineered and nearly completed a railroad in North Carolina, and they are assessed over ninety-one millions of taxable property." The editor of the paper from which this bit of information was clipped asks the question, "How do these facts impress you when you consider the fact that this race did not own itself twenty-two years ago?"

I repeat that question in your hearing. How do these facts impress you, gentlemen? Have they any significance? Are they at all indicative of industry, or thrift, or economy, of growth intellectually and morally? If they are, then, verily, the negro, outside of the help he has received from friendly sources, has helped himself creditably in all those things which pertain to the building up of an intelligent and virtuous people.

It is true, of course, that all our achievements, taken in the aggregate, are but small compared with the immense responsibilities which still lie before us, but they, nevertheless, constitute a beginning, and that beginning is very auspicious. The unfairness of our critics usually lies in the fact that they do not usually see but one side of the question, for while they recognize very readily our weaknesses and our vices, and while, for the purpose of bringing out into bold relief these weaknesses, they invariably marshal to the front our helps, somehow or in some way or other the other fact usually escapes them, namely, that we have also had some hindrances. Let us consider these in a dispassionate way.

At the close of the war the negro found himself pretty much in the condition of a man who wakes up out of a sound sleep, in the midst of a

dream, in which all things around him seem strange and confused. It took him some time to adjust himself to the new state of affairs. He was restless, he could hardly realize that he was free. As the impotent man sitting at the gate of the temple when healed by Peter, not only praised God, but walked and leaped, so the negro to test his freedom began to move about. At first these movements were individual, then general, as leaders sprang into existence, and it is really remarkable how many are the leaders when the masses are ignorant. For ten or twelve years after the war nothing was more common in the South than leaders among the negroes. Every little politician, every little crank, constituted himself a Moses to lead the negro somewhere, and various were their cries. One cried "On to Arkansas," and another cried "On to Texas," and another cried "On to Africa," and each one had a following, more or less. One man told me that he had been instrumental in leading away from the State of Georgia to the States of Arkansas and Texas 35,000 colored people.

Besides these spontaneous and voluntary movements there were also of course, some forced movements caused by tyrannical and unjust treatment, such as that memorable exodus some few years ago when thousands fled from the levees of the Mississippi to perish in the snows of Kansas. Now, whatever good may have come out of these movements, and I am not prepared to say that some did not, I have never been able to satisfy myself that they did not, by keeping the people in an unsettled state, and by frequently disturbing the growth of the home, greatly hinder the cause of popular education.

Again, no one I suppose will question the truth of the assertion that the South at the close of the war was not in a condition to take upon herself the education of the masses. Crippled in her resources and without a common school system, she was left to confront the most awful responsibilities ever thrust upon a people. That she succeeded as soon as she did in establishing a common school system is very creditable I think to the common sense and good judgment of her people. But if the South at the close of the war was not in a condition to enter upon the work of the education of the masses, neither was she in a mood to rush enthusiastically into the work of negro education. To prove that she was would be to prove that human nature has undergone a very radical change, and Mrs. Partington says she finds that there is a good deal of human nature in folks to-day.

The South grew gradually into the idea and the work of negro education, some States, to their credit, leading off in advance of others. I do not know which was first. I do know that Georgia was not last, for, as late as 1879, Mrs. Harriet Beecher Stowe, writing on the education of the freedmen, in one of the leading magazines of this country, says: "With this enlightened policy of other States it surprises us to find that in Ken-

lucky the colored race have no share of the common school fund and are oppressed by peculiar laws. A colored school-house is not allowed within a mile of a white school-house, nor, in towns, within six hundred feet." It is very easy then to see that the present conditions in the South as relate to education in general, and to negro education in particular, did not fly into existence at the stroke of some magician's wand, nor sprang they forth, as the fabled goddess, full-armed from the head of Jupiter. They are the result of gradual and steady growth; but, as the old adage has it, "While the grass is growing the horse is starving," and so while things were taking these years to settle down, while opinions were conflicting one with another, while the Southern mind was seeking a state of stable equilibrium, while popular sentiment was crystallizing around the idea of general education, the black child, and the white one, too, were waiting very impatiently for their intellectual pabulum, and had it not been for the kindly efforts of the Christian church, had it not been for the philanthropic heart of the North in those days of uncertainty and delay, had it not been for the Christian church, I say, and had it not been for the good people of the North, who sent down among us without stint both money and men, it is hard to tell what might have been the fate of the black child, who was the child of the country in which he lives. The South, therefore, to be judged fairly, must be judged not simply by what she has done but by what she has prepared to do; nor must the negro in his advancement along the lines of Christian education be judged merely by the length of time he has been freed, but also by the length of time it took to give him a start.

Now I learn that in horse-racing and in boat-racing a great deal of importance is given to the start. Every thing must be ready. All the preparations must be completed. The horseman must be trained. To-day the negro has a better start than he had twenty years ago. You have heard here to-night that he has several thousand trained teachers now among his own race. Besides the effort of the Christian church, he has the benefit, little or much, of the common school fund throughout the entire South, and he has also a little more. He is receiving gradually the recognition, sympathy, and influence of a few of the best white men of the South. Prominent among them, and pre-eminently worthy of recognition, is our magnanimous friend Dr. Atticus G. Haygood, of Georgia, the morning star of a better day, the splendid Christian knight, whose white plume is seen in the thickest of every battle, rallying more stout hearts and strong hands around the cause of humanity than all the hosts that ever thronged around the standards of Navarre. The branch of the Christian church to which the Doctor belongs has recently established in the city of Augusta, a school for freedmen, at the head of which is Dr. Calloway, assisted by Prof. Walker, of South Carolina, and some others, all Southern men. That

school to-day is the lone star of Southern Methodism, but it shines with an auspicious light. It will be the brightest star in the constellation of similar schools by and by. The world is moving and all its movements are in the direction of humanity. Gethsemane and Calvary will yet conquer.

Sometime ago I read an article written by an Ohio man who knows all about it. He had spent a couple of years in the South, teaching negroes. From the tone of the article it was evident that he had been deceived in more ways than one. At any rate in that article he poured out without stint the vials of his wrath upon those poor negroes' heads. He told all about them, all that they could do, and all that they could not, and that article was made up of more "could nots" than "coulds." I think they stood seven to one. Among other defects of the race he made the marvellous discovery that the negro children down South cannot learn as fast as the white children up in Ohio. Well, I thought, after reading that, if black children on Southern plantations *could* make as rapid progress in their studies as white children up in Ohio, it was high time for our Anglo-Saxon friends to begin a complete revision of their philosophy.

You leave out of consideration an inheritance of two thousand years, the trained intellect which is impelling your race forward with a tremendous momentum; you leave out of consideration this inheritance of two thousand years of trained intellect. The white child's cradle was rocked by an intelligent hand, the hand that moves the world. His earliest footsteps were directed by an intelligent mind, it was his good fortune to be born in an intelligent home. From the time that his eyes and ears were opened he has been drinking in wholesome instruction. There are pictures on the wall for him to gaze on. There are carpets on the floor for him to walk on. There is order, there is system, there is neatness in that home, more potent in its influences than either school or college. The white child has been drinking in, and is drinking in intelligent conversation daily. Daily he is hearing that which tends to elevate him. He is daily imbibing new ideas. He is in a magnificent school. How many are his helps, how few his hindrances?

Come with me to the cabin of the South. I will not call it a home. Look into it; perhaps it has but one room, in which live father and mother and several children; in this they cook and eat and sleep. Father and mother are not models of intelligence, oh, no, poor creatures! Knowledge to their eyes, her ample page, rich with the spoils of time, did ne'er unroll. Here are no art decorations fitted to educate the eye, to elevate the soul. Here breaks in more often the loud laugh that speaks the vacant mind; yet here too is a school, and the black child is pupil here. Alas, how few are his helps, how many his hindrances!

The various Christian denominations laboring in the South, recognizing that the education of the colored people must be greatly hindered so long as the influences of the home militate against the influences of the school, have begun to establish, in connection with their institutions, model homes or schools of domestic economy, where girls are taught all manner of housework, taught how to sew, how to knit, how to cut and how to cook, how to become worthy wives of worthy husbands, presiding with sweet and queenly dignity over the affairs of well-regulated Christian homes.

Now, to meet a question that perhaps suggests itself to the minds of some of you, a question that has often been asked me by white friends, "Why do not our people, now that they are accumulating more means, move out of these old cabins and build them better homes?" I reply that very many of them have done so all over the South, and are doing it. I know that in the city of Atlanta colored people have secured very many comfortable homes, and some very elegant ones, and I find those who have done so are those who have been under the influence of the schools, the younger people that have felt the inspiration of the Bible and the spelling-book. The older people are more inclined to cling to their old modes of living, and in this they are not peculiar; they simply illustrate the lack of taste and the power of association. To have men concern themselves with beautiful things there must first be created in them a taste for the beautiful.

Again, in these cabins the older people have experienced their joys and their sorrows, their little ones were born there, their aged ones have died there, and, if it be true that home is where the heart is, those cabins are their homes to-day, notwithstanding they are obstructions in the way of the education of the people.

But now, to hasten over a good deal, I wish to tell you, in brief, what I consider to be the greatest and most aggravating hindrance to-day to the education of the negro in this country, and I shall speak very plainly, for a man who has convictions and not the courage to express them is not worthy to stand where I stand to-night. I say that the greatest and most aggravating hindrance to the education of the negro in this country to-day is this counter-education that is going on to-day in society. The negro is taught one thing in the school-room, in society another. In the school-room he studies the same Bible that you do. In the school-room he is taught that he is a man made in the image and likeness of his Creator. He is taught that God made him, that Christ redeemed him, that the Holy Spirit sanctifies him. In society he is taught that, although God did make him, and although Christ did die for him, yet there is a vast difference between the black man and the white, a wall of partition between a Jew and a Samaritan. In the school-room he is taught the dignity of manhood according to the American idea; he is taught that "rank is but the guinea's stamp, a man's a man for a' that." In society he is taught that,

rank or no rank, if the man is a black man he is hence *not* a man for all that. In the school-room he is taught—and you teach it to him, you remember—that character is the only shibboleth demanded of a man in civilized society; that learning, that culture, that refinement are the only passports required. In society he is taught that, whatever his character may be, whatever his culture, whatever his refinement, he must not attempt to enter into every hotel in this country North or South, and that he must frequently, after paying for first-class accommodations, be compelled to ride in second-class cars in the midst of smokers and drinkers and blasphemers.

Here is a piece that I clipped out of a New York paper only last week, the tenth of July: "Prof. R. T. Greener has recently made an extended tour through the Southern States; his opinions of the progress of his race are reported by the daily press as worthy of great respect. Few men are better qualified to form a judgment. He finds more pride of race, more independence of character, greater neatness of dress, a stronger desire to enter business and increasing thirst for education. He expresses high admiration for the work of the missionary teachers; he found the negro, not only in the cotton field and tobacco factory, but acting as carpenter, wheelwright, hackman (often owning a stable), blacksmith, brakeman, and other avocations. He returns very greatly encouraged as to the future of his race. It is a burning shame that this cultured gentleman was four times ordered out of first-class cars and it is to his credit that in each case he refused 'to go.'"

Now, who is Prof. R. T. Greener? He is nothing less than a full-fledged graduate from old Harvard. I know him well, and his mother before him. When he was but a little boy working in a grocery store in the city of Boston, his employers, white people, noticing the brilliancy of his mind, thought it was too bad to keep the boy knocking around their store sweeping, and so they helped him on his way to get an education. He graduated from Harvard about fourteen years ago, and has risen gradually. To-day he is one of the foremost leaders of his race, but what does society care about a graduate from Harvard? When that young man was in that ancient institution of learning he took several prizes, competing with white students. What does society care about that? The Ethiopian cannot change his skin, and so he must suffer for being black. That is it: nothing more and nothing less. Now, I ask you, friends, what is to come of all this?

It must be very evident to you, the educators of this country, that the more you educate men the more sensitive you make them to bad treatment. What is to be the outcome? I will tell you. Some men are devising makeshifts, men who in the language of Dr. Calloway, of Georgia, are inquiring, not what can we do for the negro, but what shall we do with him? You cannot do anything with him, he is in God's hands. You can do a great deal for him; you can do simple justice to him.

In the *Popular Science Monthly*, I think it was, for February, 1888, a professor of John Hopkins University, in the discussion of this so-called negro problem, advises colonization as the only remedy to get rid of us. Colonize whom? Colonize men with ballots in their hands, and with half of the white people in this country protesting against their departure! for Anglo-Saxons will fight over an idea, and the negro in this country does represent an idea. No, gentlemen, colonization will not do.

Another writer in a pamphlet recently published, remarkable more for its bitterness than its logic, thinks that we ought to be helped to go to the newly founded States of the Congo, where we may display our capacity for self-government in the land of our fathers. Well, now, that is worth a good deal as rhetoric, but we do not want that kind of help, for we are not ready to go to the newly founded States of the Congo and display our capacity for self-government in the land of our fathers. A good many of us will go by and by to help lift Africa out of barbarism. But we are not ready to go yet; we want more in our heads, and by the time that we are ready we shall not need that gentleman's help.

Well, now, as to that expression, "The land of our fathers," it is a very tender and fatherly expression, and yet when the writer made that remark he certainly ignored a very vital fact. Of the six millions and a half of us in this country, one million more or less would have very great difficulty in finding the land of our fathers. We should very likely find Africa, the land of our mothers, but the land of our fathers we should have to seek somewhere else, perhaps along the shores of the Dead Sea, or the borders of the Scandinavian Peninsula. No, gentlemen, we are not going anywhere.

Did you ever consider the impracticability and absurdity of this idea of colonizing and sending us off, so as to get the two races apart. Suppose I should start to-morrow and go to Africa, I would like to know in what part of Africa I should go to not find a white man. If I go to the barbarous States, thou art there. If I take my way down into the Soudan, thou art there—and in a rather precarious position to-day. If I should steer away to the West coast, to Sierra Leone, I should find Stanley there. If I should take the wings of the morning and fly to the uttermost parts of the cape, thou art there. If I should sail away to Mozambique and Madagascar, thou art there, fighting the natives for that little piece of land. If I should go to Abyssinia I should most certainly find you there, trying to induce King John to help you fight against the false prophet.

Now, do you see the absurdity of these plans to colonize us, or to expatriate us? We find you everywhere. If the white man wants us to go abroad, let him first stay at home. If I can live with you in Africa, I can live with you here. Sink or swim, live or die, survive or perish, the most of us, at least, intend to remain here in this best country under the

sun, this gift of God to humanity. When the Lord put that idea into the head of Columbus to torment him, and you all know it did torment him, and sent the poor man tramping all over Europe, from country to country, and city to city, the jeer and laughing-stock of the little folks of that day, until he did succeed in getting aid to carry out his noble project,—I say when he came here, finally, and took charge of this land in the name, I understand, of the Castilian sovereign, if Columbus had had the light of the nineteenth century, instead of taking possession of it in the name of the Castilian monarchs, he would have taken possession of it in the name of God and humanity. We say that we are going to remain here; we are not going anywhere.

When God sent Columbus to discover this land it was because the Almighty was sick and tired of looking down on the tyranny of the old world and the oppression of his people, and because he wanted to found here in this Western land a people who should wrench the sceptre from kings and should found a government for all mankind. Colonization, I fancy, will not do.

Hear, now, the conclusion of the whole matter,—not colonization but education, and I mean education in the best and broadest sense,—that education which will make the black man a strong man, not a weakling, not a snob, not a dude. Let us have that kind of education, and above all, let us have even-handed justice. The negro asks for no more, he ought to have no less. Go preach this from your pulpits; go teach this in your school-rooms; go educate the people up to where they stood in the days of George the Third, when they declared, and staked their fortunes on the declaration, "That all men are created equal, that they are endowed by their Creator with certain inalienable rights, that among these are life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness." Go teach this, I say, in the letter and the spirit, in the class-room and by the fireside, and twenty years hence, when some negro addresses a National Educational Association of the United States, he will have the exquisite pleasure, denied me to-night, of thanking you for the helps, without reminding you of the hindrances.

LAST WORDS FROM THE SOUTH.

ADDRESS OF REV. A. D. MAYO, AT THE NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL CONVENTION, MADISON, WISCONSIN.

I congratulate myself, Mr. President, that you have given me an easy task ; I am not here to speak for the sixteen Southern States of this Union ; they are here to speak for themselves. I only propose to tell you of a few things I have seen in a four years' ministry of education through fourteen of these States—a ministry conducted with open eyes, and I hope, with open mind and heart, to find out what these, our brothers and sisters of the southern portion of our country, are doing in behalf of the children and youth, and in the building up of the new American civilization that is coming to pass in all these United States.

I shall not burden your patience by any account of my personal adventures in this deeply interesting ministry of education. But this I may say, that in all my wanderings through the vast regions of these Southern States, I have always kept in mind the golden law of judgment set up by Coleridge, greatest of British critics, when he said, "*No man is competent to speak of the defects of a book or work of art till he knows its merits.*" I accept that golden rule of judgment in my estimation of men, states, and peoples. In my journeyings to and fro, I have come across enough to furnish material for a political lower-story investigation of Southern society through indefinite presidential campaigns. But, leaving this work, however important it may be, in abler hands, I have given myself a good deal to the more hopeful task of upper-story investigation in the regions where the moving powers of society are located, out of which must finally issue the destiny of the Southern people. So I am not here to speak to you of a thousand things our neighbors are not, but to remind you of a few profoundly significant things which these people are doing and becoming. And so powerful has been the impression on my own mind of this upper-story investigation, that I am ready to assert that, if we, in the North, will stand by what I may call the Educational Public of the South, man and woman fashion, for a generation to come, all good things for which all good men and women now hope and pray will surely come to pass down there and all through our beloved land.

The first note of hope and cheer that I strike is this: that the most influential people of the South, of all classes and both races, are learning the true American way of education, by learning to help themselves. Every American state, city or little border hamlet must finally be educated by itself, in league with the educating Providence, as revealed to that locality. I always lose interest in our most eminent teachers of foreign birth, as soon as they entrench on the "genuine method," from over the sea. Of course, we need all that Europe, the rest of the world, ancient and modern, can give us. But we need all this, first and foremost, plus the Almighty God, here and now, to help us train American citizens with the flavor of this new age and its mighty revelations in human affairs.

I am glad that the North and the nation have given \$50,000,000 to our brothers of the South within the past twenty-five years, as a friendly lift in the beginning of the great work of the education of the whole people. I pray that Congress, after the presidential agony is over, and men are again free to stand up in their places and say they believe in God and man and the Ten Commandments, may confirm the grant of \$70,000,000 voted by the Senate to reinforce the whole country in its death struggle against our national illiteracy; that illiteracy being only the fine dictionary name for the new American barbarism which is the home devil of New York and New Orleans alike. But all this is only the friendly encouragement of that radical work of training the younger third of the Southern people for our new civilization, which they must and will do of themselves within the coming fifty years, and I go to these people and ask you all to go out to them with the power of your noblest sympathies and most practical aid, because they are waking up to this great obligation and because your sympathy will be the most potent encouragement to its speedy performance.

Even the Southern colored citizen, the least educated of all Americans, is gradually waking up to this American idea of self-help; is coming to understand that he is nobody's man, but God's man and his own. The seven million Southern colored people cannot be gathered in as an attachment to any great ecclesiastical party, North or South, or even garnered up as an humble Anglo-Saxon annex. Everywhere I find him making commendable efforts to get himself in hand and place himself in line with the great American family, into whose house of freedom of many mansions he is the latest comer, and in which he is to be not the least favored occupant in the long ages to come. The Southern colored man does not specially need our pity or our patronage, and takes no stock in any man's despair. Coming up the Mississippi in its annual overflow, last April, our little steamer was weighted almost to the water's edge by the poor people we picked up along shore, drowned out by the wide waste of weltering waters that changed the valley to a muddy ocean a hundred miles wide. Down in the bow huddled a crowd of disconsolate-looking white laborers and tramps, the very image of despondency. At one landing we took in a

group of colored women with their flock of babies and the poor household wrecks saved from the flood; the most complete human "object lesson" in "reduction to its lowest terms" I had ever seen. At first, these poor creatures dropped where they were, on a level with their demoralized white brothers. But, by and by, a big, jolly sister stood up, six feet in her muddy shoes and stockings, surveyed the field, and with a grand toss of her head and a superb sweep of her hand spoke up: "Ladies, this is no place for us, come up here on deck!" I am glad to report that in all my wanderings among the Southern people I have come across no considerable class of any color who propose to be saved by anybody but God Almighty and themselves. The poorest of them, as soon as they hear the cry of despair from school-man, politician, or priest, rise up and say: "Brothers and sisters, this is no place for us, come up here on deck!" Believe me, friends, the key to the present situation down South, is the glorious American gospel of self-help. It is our duty and privilege to do all we may, for years to come, in the opening era of training our Southern youth for the glorious future that is coming to them like morning over the kindling eastern hills. But all this is as nothing to the demand that will test the uttermost invention, enterprise, and consecration of the Southern people; to educate the myriads of children that God is sending down that way, innumerable as the leaves on the trees and the waves of the sea. And the best of all we can offer is the love that sweetens every gift and lifts giver and receiver to the plane where both are henceforth one.

So let the little group of Southern senators who seem to be worried lest a moderate National Aid for education should demoralize their people, possess their perturbed souls in peace. Big Texas and little Delaware will take and ought to take all of Uncle Sam's money they can honestly get for the children. The whole South will and ought to take all it can honorably get from all sources for the training of the children and youth. For when all is given that can be had, these millions will hardly be enough to fill its big pocket with change to buy educational "goodies" for the little ones. Whatever we do, the final work of educating the generations must be done by the "old folks at home." So the first note of hope and cheer I strike is, that the Southern people are learning the great American way of educating the coming generation by learning to help themselves. God bless them! Let us take hold and do all we can to help them and then look on, with patriotic joy and pride, to see them do it.

The second note of hope and cheer, like all that follow, is only a variation of the grand theme of American self-help: is the great awakening of the Southern people, of the better sort, to this work of the Education of all the children. I am afraid our busy people, north of the Potomac and the Ohio, do not know much of this; and some of them are unwilling to believe when told of it. I, too, as long as my own knowledge of the Southern people was from the press, supposed that the leading people of

these States were largely occupied in watching on the border for a change of political administration at Washington that would restore them to their old place in national affairs; that the white men did the voting and the colored brethren did the work; and that their young men were held in leash for a political outbreak that was sure to come unless certain great civic fathers continued to sit up in the places of power. When I went among them I did find a good many politicians, probably as many and as unreliable as in Massachusetts or New York. I also learned what I was not obliged to go South to learn; that there are always, in this country, ten men yearning for an official chair when there will be one chair vacant in ten years. But, after pushing through this outer fringe of partisan politicians, I learned that the "solid South" has set its heart on two things: First, to keep the wolf from the door; and second, to put the children at school.

No people, in modern times, has been so overwhelmed and impoverished by the wreck of civil war as the superior class of the South. And where one of these men is now crying aloud for an office, ninety-nine are hard at work, building up their new interests and enterprises and laying the foundations of their new era of free labor by the faithful performance of the homely duties of common life. Old Dr. Johnson used to say, "Whatever the parsons may preach, men are seldom so usefully and morally employed as in honestly making money." The Southern people must and ought to be greatly engrossed, for a generation to come, in the development of their magnificent country, a wonder land, from which the veil of centuries is being slowly lifted to the amazement of the civilized world.

Next to this revival of industrial life, along with it, goes the great awakening of the better sort of people, of both races, for that Education which is the great American chance for every American child. I have never been in any locality so obscure that I didn't find this spirit abroad, like fire running under ground, ready to burst into an open flame. And nowhere, in any city, have I found such electric popular attention as in many of these communities, where a whole neighborhood rises up, and, forgetting past and present discouragements, laying aside local contentions, rising above the natural jealousy of outside interference, has welcomed the Minister of Education, though a stranger, with a spirit as fresh and a confidence as sacred as the first love of confiding youth.

No estimate of Southern affairs is reliable that does not take into account this widespread and irresistible movement of the Southern people for that Education which is the great American chance for every American child. Of course, there are thousands of people who are not reached by it; many who do not know of it and some who will not hear of it. But this I have noticed; that, when a public man mounts a pile of antiquated political rubbish for an old-fashioned harangue against modern times, unless the political sense is clean leaked out of him, he straightway feels the ground shaking beneath him and a mighty stir in the air warns of a com-

ing cyclone of the people's wrath. I noticed that a week after the beginning of the great debate, last winter, in the Senate, on National Aid, almost every Southern statesman of first-class reputation came to the front in its support; solemnity was in order; and "fools who came to scoff remained to pray." Every Southern senator who opposed that bill will have abundant opportunities to "rise and explain" to constituents within the coming six months. The school question is coming to the front, below tariff and currency; below sectional and partisan issues; perhaps the most powerful educator of the class of intelligent younger men of affairs who will lead the people in the years to come.

I wish I could reproduce in you the feeling that comes upon every generous mind at the sight of this wonderful uplifting of the spirit of whole communities and peoples through these great commonwealths. It reminds me of a voyage down the Mississippi, on the first big steamer that carried the electric light. The news of the coming glory ran ahead and, at every landing where the light was let on, we saw crowds of wondering people, worshipping the midnight sunrise; while every city and hamlet was revealed, as by an awful judgment-day radiance, from its topmost spire to its lowest slum. Let any man who has lost faith in the people go with me, and from the platform where I face the gathering multitudes, look upon the flush of pride on the cheek of maidens and youth; the waking up of the irrepressible crowd of small boys on the front benches; the coming out of sweet and noble looks in faded old faces, with new and grander visions, through springing tears, in dimmed and waiting eyes; as the glorious gospel of the New Education is proclaimed; and he will know the divine meaning of the old words—"The people that sat in darkness have seen a great light, and to them that dwelt in the region and shadow of death light is sprung up."

The third note of hope and cheer is: that this awakening is not a sentiment or a temporary excitement, but is gradually "materializing" into the establishment of the American system of Education in all the Southern States. I know what the experts can say about a good deal of the school life already on the ground. I understand all that the lower-story critic can offer concerning the terrible illiteracy and lack of opportunity in the most favored of these commonwealths. But here are a few stubborn facts. During the most dreary twenty years that ever clouded the upward struggle of any modern people, the better class of the South has restored their old system of collegiate, academical, and professional schools for whites, on broader foundations and with better methods than before the flood, with but little aid from abroad. They have also, in the last fifteen years, domesticated the American system of common schools, for all classes and both races, in every State; in almost every State made this a little better every year; and never was the outlook for popular education so favorable in these sixteen States as it is now. This year, the South will pay

\$15,000,000 for common schools alone ; beside all the money expended on the higher academical, professional, and artistic education ; a sum, considering their pecuniary condition, equivalent to ten times \$15,000,000 in our powerful, wealthy, and prosperous North.

Even the Freedman, from a condition of absolute ignorance and poverty, in twenty years has made good progress in building up that aristocracy of intelligence, character, and industry, on which, like every race, he must rely, as the chief elevator to the American order of citizenship. In the same time there has been developed a body of several thousand creditable teachers of common schools, some of them eminent instructors in the higher grades of education. The Freedman has not died out : he is very much alive ; increasing and multiplying faster than any of us ; has already laid up \$100,000,000 in one short generation, and wherever I go I find his children crowding the school-house door, like little Oliver in the story, " asking for more."

Everywhere I find the evidence of this work for the children. I have visited a score of towns whose eminent respectabilities assured me were dead and buried in educational indifference. But almost invariably, if I went back to one of these places in two years, I was welcomed by crowds of children, with their teachers in the graded school, and the unrespectable thing turned out to be want of faith in the people. And one good thing in this building up is the home flavor that is coming into the best of these schools. These best graded schools are no more an imitation of similar institutions in the North than a South Carolina cotton-field is like an Ohio corn-field ; a Texas prairie in April like a village common in Vermont, or a Florida orange-grove like a California wheat-farm. The old professor of dust and ashes is already becoming an antiquity, and the bright young men and women who are called to superintend the New Education are making it, as it should be, American in substance, but instinct with the best spirit and flavor of the home life. It is a new revelation of our national type of Education ; with the *elan* and electric enthusiasm of these people in the very atmosphere ; in its own way doing for the children in the South what Iowa and Wisconsin are doing in the great Northwest. Even our faithful Northern graduates who have gone to be Professors and Presidents in the new universities and colleges for the colored folk have builded better than anybody knew, because compelled to turn their back on the past and forget themselves in the effort to shape the university of the future for God's last people introduced to civilization. Harvard and Yale and Columbia and Princeton may smile at the big names put on by these superior schools for colored youth. But, tried by the most eminent educators of ancient and modern times, Hampton and Fisk and Atlanta, and the whole group of superior schools for colored youth are nearer the type of the true university than many a notable college in the cultivated Northeast. The leading teachers of the South are better informed of the disabilities

and perils of their educational life than their most eloquent advisers from the North or abroad. Neither they nor the educational public they represent have "attained." But they are laying the foundations of that Southern American system of universal education which, in due time, Providence permitting, and all good men helping, will bring out the Southern youth abreast of his companions in the North, in the republic of the years to come.

The final note of hope and cheer I strike is this: that, in the South, as in the North, the most vital department of education is passing into the hands of woman. The most radical element in the new American education is the woman power;—already so potent in the elementary and coming into such prominence in the secondary and higher school. No people in Christendom has called its young womanhood to such a responsibility as the American people has laid on the head and heart of the army of heroic girls that "hold the fort" in the little children's school. It is not because the people are stingy; although the woman teachers are too often poorly paid. It is not that they are indifferent to the best in education; as they are not indifferent to the best elsewhere in American life. But it is because our people has made up its mind to trust her whom God calls to the maternity of the child with the most vital training of the child during the years of infancy and early youth;—also to invite her to a full copartnership with man in the work of the secondary and higher school. So far, despite all drawbacks, the girl-teachers have not disappointed the people. No class of persons, to-day, is doing more to meet the high demand of the country than the leading class of woman-teachers, in every grade of the American school.

The South is showing itself American in this: that it is calling its choicest young womanhood to serve in the school-room. And, as if to give Providential endorsement to this tendency, I find multitudes of the daughters of the better sort of families compelled by their condition to look to the school-room, not only for the most convenient means of pecuniary support, but as the best opportunity for honorable station in life. The most affecting and pathetic scenes in my wanderings among the Southern people are the efforts of so many of these noble young women to gain this furnishing for service in the upper regions of Southern society. The greatest opportunity of a people sometimes comes from what appears the most appalling calamity. The two most apparent perils and drawbacks of Southern life,—the widespread poverty, and the terrible ignorance of its lower grades of society,—are already waking up the Christian womanhood of that section to toils and sacrifices which always bring down the consecration of the Holy Spirit upon any earnest soul. It will be years before the finest young men of the South, in any large numbers, can be directed from the activities and the ambitions that are now so absorbing in the direction of industrial enterprise. It will only be gradually that our new industries

will be developed in these States, out of which so many women are gaining an honorable support in the great centres of labor in the North. But, meanwhile, the young womanhood of all these States will be assigned to the charge of the whole upper-story of Southern life; and through her the school, the church, society, and the higher public opinion will be wonderfully reinforced in all things true and beautiful and good. I meet this spirit everywhere and work with it like a man under a spell; and if I speak of it in this way it is not from a sentimental illusion, but from a sober estimate of the power of such an agency in our American affairs.

The conclusion of the whole matter is: that the foremost people of the Southern States, of all classes and both races, are awake and at work to bring their commonwealths up to their primal duty as members of a true union of States. And so believing, I declare it our noblest privilege and most imperative duty to aid them as friends in all practical ways that God has put into our power. If it were only for a wise comprehension of national self-protection, I would say: Help the Southern people educate their children for a generation to come; for national illiteracy is the nation's peril, and the least State is big enough to let in a raging deluge of barbarism that may swamp us all. But I rise above the common level of secular self-interest and invoke, not only your "material aid," but friendly co-operation, philanthropic interest, personal love for our brothers and sisters of the Southland. Do not believe anybody who tells you these people are not worth all we can do for or give to them; or that they need us more than we need them. We gave the lives of a quarter of a million of our dear boys in blue and the earnings of a generation to keep them from going away from us twenty years ago; not a man too many or a dollar too much for the mighty hope that demanded and the glorious consummation that crowned the nation's sacrifice. They are not our enemies and it will be our sin and shame if their children are not our children's lovers, and their country's friends. They are waiting for our last word of hope and cheer, and we shall never be at peace with ourselves or with Heaven till we give it them and all around the Republic peace and good will shall ebb and flow like the swelling and sinking of ocean tides that enfold us all. And I rejoice, with joy unspeakable, that whatever men and women elsewhere, or whatever we in other relations may not be doing; we, the men and women of the East and West, and North and South, here assembled to take counsel for the cause of God and the human race, can work together, with no cloud above our heads and no pitfall beneath our feet, to think and talk and pray for those who shall come after us in the mighty upbuilding of the new Republic which, Heaven willing, and all good men helping, in God's own time, will surely come.

THE EDUCATIONAL OUTLOOK IN THE SOUTH.

BY BOOKER T. WASHINGTON, PRINCIPAL TUSKEGEE NORMAL SCHOOL,
TUSKEGEE, ALABAMA.

Fourteen years ago it is said that Northern teachers in the South for the purpose of teaching colored schools were frightened away by the whites from the town of Tuskegee, Alabama. Four years ago the democratic members of the Alabama Legislature from Tuskegee voluntarily offered and had passed by the General Assembly a bill, appropriating \$2000 annually to pay the salaries of teachers in a colored normal school to be located at Tuskegee. At the end of the first session of the school the legislature almost unanimously passed a second bill appropriating an additional \$1000 annually, for the same purpose. About one month ago one of the white citizens of Tuskegee who had at first looked on the school in a cold, distant kind of a way said to me, "I have just been telling the white people that the negroes are more interested in education than we, and are making more sacrifices to educate themselves." At the end of our first year's work, some of the whites said, "We are glad that the Normal School is here because it draws people and makes labor plentiful." At the close of the second year, several said that the Normal School was beneficial because it increased trade, and at the close of the last session more than one has said that the Normal School is a good institution, it is making the colored people in this State better citizens. From the opening of the school to the present, the white citizens of Tuskegee have been among its warmest friends. They have not only given of their money but they are ever ready to suggest and devise plans to build up the institution. When the school was making an effort to start a brick-yard, but was without means, one of the merchants donated an outfit of tools. Every white minister in the town has visited the school and given encouraging remarks. When the school was raising money to build our present hall, it occurred to one of the teachers that it would be a good idea to call on the white ladies for contributions in the way of cakes, etc., toward a fair. The result was that almost every lady, called on, gave something and the fair was made up almost entirely of articles given by these friends. A former slave-holder working on a negro normal school building under a negro master-carpenter is a picture that the last few years have made possible.

Any movement for the elevation of the Southern negro in order to be successful, must have to a certain extent the co-operation of the Southern whites. They control government and own the property—whatever benefits the black man benefits the white man. The proper education of all the whites will benefit the negro as much as the education of the negro will benefit the whites. The Governor of Alabama would probably count it no disgrace to ride in the same railroad coach with a colored man, but the ignorant white man who carries the Governor's horse would turn up his nose in disgust. The president of a white college in Tuskegee makes a special effort to furnish our young men work that they may be able to remain in school, while the miserable unlettered "brother in white" would say "you can't learn a nigger anything." Brains, property, and character for the negro will settle the question of civil rights. The best course to pursue in regard to the civil rights bill in the South is to let it alone; let it alone and it will settle itself. Good school teachers and plenty of money to pay them will be more potent in settling the race question than many civil rights bills and investigating committees. A young colored physician went into the city of Montgomery, Alabama, a few months ago to practise his profession—he was the first to professionally enter the ex-confederate capital. When his white brother physicians found out by a six days' examination that he had brains enough to pass a better examination, as one of them said, than many of the whites had passed, they gave him a hearty welcome and offered their services to aid him in consultation or in any other way possible—and they are standing manfully up to their promise. Let there be in a community a negro who by virtue of his superior knowledge of the chemistry of the soil, his acquaintance with the most improved tools and best breeds of stock, can raise fifty bushels of corn to the acre while his white neighbor only raises thirty, and the white man will come to the black man to learn. Further, they will sit down on the same train, in the same coach and on the same seat to talk about it. Harmony will come in proportion as the black man gets something that the white man wants, whether it be of brains or of material. Some of the county whites looked at first with disfavor on the establishing of a normal school in Tuskegee. It turned out that there was no brick-yard in the county; merchants and farmers wanted to build, but bricks must be brought from a distance or they must wait for one house to burn down before building another. The normal school with student labor started a brick-yard. Several kilns of bricks were burned; the whites came four miles around for bricks. From examining bricks they were led to examine the workings of the school. From the discussion of the brick-yard came the discussion of negro education—and thus many of the "old masters" have been led to see and become interested in negro education. In Tuskegee a negro mechanic manufactures the best tin ware, the best harness, the best boots and shoes, and it is common to see his store crowded with white customers

from all over the county. His word or note goes as far as that of the whitest man.

I repeat for emphasis that any work looking towards the permanent improvement of the negro South, must have for one of its aims the fitting of him to live friendly and peaceably with his white neighbors both socially and politically. In spite of all talk of exodus, the negro's home is permanently in the South: for coming to the bread-and-meat side of the question, the white man needs the negro, and the negro needs the white man. His home being permanently in the South it is our duty to help him prepare himself to live there an independent, educated citizen.

In order that there may be the broadest development of the colored man and that he may have an unbounded field in which to labor, the two races must be brought to have faith in each other. The teachings of the negro in various ways for the last twenty years have been rather too much to array him against his white brother than to put the two races in co-operation with each other. Thus, Massachusetts supports the Republican party, because the Republican party supports Massachusetts with a protective tariff, but the negro supports the Republican party simply because Massachusetts does. When the colored man is educated up to the point of reasoning, that Massachusetts and Alabama are a long ways apart and the conditions of life are very different and if free trade enables my white neighbor across the street to buy his plows at a cheaper rate it will enable me to do the same thing, then will he be consulted in governmental questions. More than once have I noticed that when the whites were in favor of prohibition the blacks led even by sober upright ministers voted against it simply because the whites were in favor of it and for that reason the blacks said that they knew it was a "Democratic trick." If the whites vote to levy a tax to build a school-house it is a signal for the blacks to oppose the measure, simply because the whites favor it. I venture the assertion that the sooner the colored man South learns that one political party is not composed of all angels and the other of all devils, and that all his enemies do not live in his own town or neighborhood, and all his friends in some distant section of the country, the sooner will his educational advantages be enhanced many fold. But matters are gradually changing in this respect. The black man is beginning to find out that there are those even among the Southern whites who desire his elevation. The negro's new faith in the white man is being reciprocated in proportion as the negro is rightly educated. The white brother is beginning to learn by degrees that all negroes are not liars and chicken thieves. A former owner of seventy-five or one hundred slaves and now a large planter and merchant said to me a few days ago, "I can see every day the change that is coming about. I have on one of my plantations a colored man who can read and write and he is the most valuable man on the farm. In the first place I can trust him to keep the time of the others or with any thing else. If a new

style of plow or cotton planter is taken on the place he can understand its construction in half the time that any of the others can."

My faith is that reforms in the South are to come from within. Southern people have a good deal of human nature. They like to receive the praise of doing good deeds, and they don't like to obey orders that come from Washington telling them that they must lay aside at once customs that they have followed for centuries, and henceforth there must be but one railroad coach, one hotel, and one school-house for ex-master and ex-slave. In proof of my first assertion, the railroads in Alabama required colored passengers to pay the same fare as the whites, and then compelled the colored to ride in the smoking-car. A committee of leading colored people laid the injustice of the matter before the railroad commissioners of Alabama, who at once ordered that within thirty days every railroad in the State should provide equal, but separate accommodations for both races. Every prominent newspaper in the State pronounced it a just decision. Alabama gives \$9000 annually towards the support of colored normal schools. The last legislature increased the annual appropriation for free schools by \$100,000, making the total annual appropriation over \$500,000, and nearly half of this amount goes to colored schools, and I have the first time to hear of any distinction being made between the races by any State officer in the distribution of this fund. Why, my friends, more pip-pins are growing in the South than crab-apples, more roses than thorns.

Now, in regard to what I have said about the relations of the two races, there should be no unmanly cowering, or stooping to satisfy unreasonable whims of Southern white men, but it is charity and wisdom to keep in mind the two hundred years' schooling in prejudice against the negro, which the ex-slave-holders are called upon to conquer. A certain class of whites South object to the general education of the colored man, on the ground that when he is educated he ceases to do manual labor, and there is no evading the fact that much aid is withheld from negro education in the South, by the States, on these grounds. Just here the great mission of

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coupled with the mental comes in. "It kills two birds with one stone," viz. : secures the co-operation of the whites, and does the best possible thing for the black man. An old colored man in a cotton-field in the middle of July, lifted his eyes towards heaven, and said, "De cotton is so grassy, de work is so hard, and de sun am so hot, I believe dis darkey am called to preach." This old man, no doubt, stated the true reason why not a few enter school. Educate the black man, mentally and industrially, and there will be no doubt of his prosperity; for a race who have lived at all, and paid for the last twenty years, twenty-five and thirty per cent. interest on the dollar advanced for food, with almost no education, can certainly take care of themselves when educated mentally and industrially.

The Tuskegee Normal School, located in the black belt of Alabama, with an ignorant, degraded negro population of twenty-five thousand within a radius of twenty miles, has a good chance to see the direct needs of the people ; and to get a correct idea of their condition one must leave the towns and go far out into the country, miles from any railroad, where the majority of the people live. They need teachers with not only trained heads and hearts, but with trained hands. School-houses are needed in every township and county. The present wrecks of log-cabins and bush harbors, where many of the schools are now taught, must be replaced by comfortable, decent houses. In many school-houses rails are used for seats, and often the fire is on the outside of the house, while teacher and scholars are on the inside. Add to this a teacher who can scarcely write his name, and who is as weak mentally as morally, and you then have but a faint idea of the educational condition of many parts of the South. It is the work of Tuskegee to send into these places, teachers who will not stand off and tell the people what to do, or what ought to be done, but to send those who can take hold and show the people *how* to do. The blacksmiths, carpenters, brickmasons, and tanners, who learned their trades in slavery, are dying out, and slavery having taught the colored boy that labor is a disgrace few of their places are being filled. The negro now has a monopoly of the trades in the South, but he can't hold it unless the young men are taught trades while in school. The large number of educated loafers to be seen around the streets of our large cities furnishes another reason in favor of industrial education. Then the proud fop with his beaver hat, kid gloves, and walking cane, who has done no little to injure the cause of education South, by industrial training, would be brought down to something practical and useful. The Tuskegee Normal School, with a farm of 500 acres, carpenter's shop, printing-office, blacksmith's shop and brick-yard for boys, and a sewing department, laundry, flower gardening, and practical housekeeping for girls, is trying to do its part towards furnishing industrial training. We ask help for nothing that we can do for ourselves ; nothing is bought that the students can produce. The boys raise the vegetables, have done the painting, made the brick, the chairs, the tables, the desks ; have built a stable, a carpenter's shop, and a blacksmith's shop. The girls do the entire housekeeping, including the mending, ironing, and washing of the boys' clothes ; besides they make many garments to sell.

The majority of the students are poor and able to pay but little cash for board ; consequently, the school keeps three points before it. First, to give the student the best mental training ; secondly, to furnish him with labor that will be valuable to the school, and that will enable the student to learn something from the labor *per se* ; thirdly, to teach the dignity of labor. A *chance* to help himself is what we want to give to every student ; this is the chance that was given me ten years ago when I entered the

Hampton Institute with but fifty cents in my pocket, and it is my only ambition in life to do my part in giving it to every other poor but worthy young man and woman.

As to morals, the negro is slowly but surely improving. In this he has had no standard by which to shape his character. The masses in too many cases have been judged by their so called leaders, who are as a rule ignorant, immoral preachers or selfish politicians. The number of these preachers is legion. One church near Tuskegee has a total membership of two hundred, and nineteen of these are preachers.

Poverty and ignorance have effected the black man just as they effect the white man. They have made him untruthful, intemperate, selfish, caused him to steal, to be cheated, and made the outcast of society, and he has aspired to positions which he was not mentally and morally capable of filling. But the day is breaking, and education will bring the complete light. The scales of prejudice are beginning to drop from the eyes of the dominant classes South, and through their clearer and more intelligent vision they are beginning to see and recognize the mighty truth that wealth, happiness, and permanent prosperity will only come in proportion as the hand, head, and heart of both races are educated and christianized.

NEEDS IN AMERICAN EDUCATION.

BY MRS. EVA D. KELLOGG.

I.

The training of the children of any people is a work of such breadth and importance, as to call for the studious attention of the deepest thinkers, brightest intellects, and truest souls. There are distinctive characteristics of each national plant-growth to be distinctly recognized, lest the symmetry be lost as the outspreading branches seek the larger space of the upper realm. This training requires not only the completest ideal of what it must be in its perfected development, but the practical knowledge resulting from close observation and inventive power; for there is pruning to be done also, excrescences to be removed, and oft-times the engrafting of new scions to utilize the native vigor in the production of finer fruit. These figurative processes, applied to the education of children and youth, is what we shall mean in offering a few suggestions as to the "Needs in American Education."

That "nobility imposes obligation," is as true in a republican country as in a monarchy. Much may be rightly expected of the intelligent citizens of our republic, standing unshackled by any fetters of caste or social limitation; men as free as he who first looked on paradise, reared and cherished in the protecting arms of its free institutions, lifting them gradually to beckoning honors further on and higher up if they be ambitious to climb; with blood scarcely cooled from the ardor of the old revolutionary struggle: what may not the world expect of such a people? One could hardly think it would be necessary to teach a love of country to any native American who can claim one ancestral link to a land that makes a Mecca of its Plymouth Rock; that love and honor would seem to come to all such as instinctive as the love of life. The bitter test and proof of self-sacrifice has not been wanting in America in the century that is past; but it is sometimes easier to die for a cause than to live for it. Thrilling with pride at the sight of a national flag that rocks one's heart upon its billowy folds,—and who that has tarried long under other skies has not felt this at the sudden sight of the starry home symbol?—this quick sensation of rapture may be quite possible to an American who would not surrender one prejudice or correct one

national fault that would take away a single reproach of us in the eyes of other nations.

While yet our country was in its infancy and every energy was needed in keeping on our feet, that were never quite certain of a solid foundation beneath them, it could not be expected that men and women could have time or thought for the correction and cultivation of many things that have become prominent through neglect, and stand out now as targets for observation and comment by other peoples. Now, that the uncertain foundations of a century ago have become *terra firma* beneath us, is it not time to pause and see if there be any good cause why other nations attracted to our shores, mingle certain criticisms with their warmest praise? If their censure be just, then the smallest child entering upon its first day of school (for we shall not touch now upon the home obligation in this matter) should feel this corrective influence. Is it not, then, among the foremost duties of the teachers of this republic, to ascertain what these national faults are that are said to blot the fair surface of our fame? Let us step up and out from the narrowing circle of our school routine while the pressure of duty is lifted in these vacation hours and look upon our national peculiarities from some high peak or broad plateau of observation, so clear and sunlit that no fog of prejudice shall obscure the vision. Let us now find such an observatory, if you please, and for the time let some other flag than our own float in the clear air above us, while we look at our beloved country, as one only can see their dwelling-place, by going out of it.

Perhaps every honest, thoughtful American will best justify his claim to be such by confessing his extreme sensitiveness to criticism at home or abroad. While human nature is not specially adapted to receive this unwelcome visitor in any form, yet it is not only possible, but absolutely necessary, to reach the point where one can sincerely solicit its offices before the height of individual excellence is reached. As educators we recognize the importance of mutual criticism in the prominent place we give it in our educational institutions. No graduate of a training school ever steps out as a competent teacher, till she has learned to stand like St. Sebastian and receive the arrows of criticism from her class. The principle which applies to an individual holds good in an aggregate of fifty millions of individuals grouped in the American nation, yet we have placed an invisible statue of warning at the entrance to every harbor large enough to admit a foreign steamer, that stands with uplifted finger, saying: "We welcome you to the most magnificent country the sun has ever shone upon! We welcome you to the glories and delights of uni-

versal freedom ! We open to you every door of opportunity, promising the enjoyment of entire social and political and religious freedom ! We cordially offer you the fraternal hands of good fellowship ; but, don't you dare to criticise us ! We *are* a great nation, but not great enough to be told our weaknesses." Evidences of this spirit are found in our reception of every unpleasant truth that has been told us since our guns proclaiming national independence first echoed round the world, summoning thousands on thousands of surprised listeners to seek the spot where the dream of universal freedom had become a waking reality. On the other side of the ocean we praise the genius of the man who portrays the weakness of his country through inimitable character-sketching ; but he comes to us, employing these same rare powers in the observation of our peculiarities, and we feel only the indignation of wounded pride at what we denounce at once as an exaggeration and a caricature. Another is acknowledged to be the greatest living critic of his age, three thousand miles away, but he dares discuss our idols on our own soil, and we refuse even to consider its truth or justice. A man or woman cannot visit America and accept the lavish attentions of our hospitality and ever afterward express an adverse opinion concerning us, without incurring the reproach of ingratitude and national prejudice. It is a school-boy spectacle, this standing in a belligerent attitude and comforting our wounded vanity by a long list of wrongs that exist on the other side, as if that retaliation would lessen our absurdities or make them less noticeable. We always correct this spirit in our children, but are we not guilty of it ourselves in a larger way ? And is it not a growing, if hitherto unrecognized, need of American education to cultivate a willingness to listen to adverse opinions of us as a nation, and to correct whatever, upon impartial examination, proves to be true ? If "the child is father to the man" can we not make the average boy an "object lesson" in this examination of the criticism we so sensitively condemn ? There is but one day in all the year when an American boy gives a perfect expression of the pent up spirit within him, and this volcanic exhibition makes our Fourth of July one hideous succession of hours to be counted off in glad relief. The rumble and smoke of this shut-up fire is heard all the year in every school-room in the land. A teacher feels its pressure like some concealed dynamite, and this consciousness immeasurably increases the work of teaching. All teachers who have ever mingled nationalities in the school-room have felt the different degrees of effort necessary to secure docile, teachable pupils. A group of American teachers in a London institution, made up of nearly every nationality except

Americans, were discussing the prospect of a new pupil for the next day. "What would you like him to be?" asked one teacher of another. A chorus of "Scotch, English and German" followed, in which German predominated. "Why don't somebody say American?" continued the inquirer. "No, don't!" emphatically exclaimed one of the most loyal American women we ever knew, who was never tired of chanting the superiority of her own country over every other, and who was so homesick that minute that she would have sailed for home on the next steamer. Now the cause of that involuntary "Don't!" from loyal lips will give us the real reason of the undesirability of American children as pupils or learners in any industrial department,—a charge so often alleged against us. Their brightness, ability, and energy are gladly admitted; but the quality that makes the German schools preferred by the teachers in cities where this element is a large factor in the population,—the docility, teachableness, and diligence,—these are wanting, with that other great lack in American character,—*the want of reverence*. This quality seems to be actually sifted out of the national character, in the shaking and tossing about to which the nation has been subjected in the last century. The impulse of conscientious revolt against unwarrantable authority, that gave birth to our national life, has passed from one generation to another, but has somehow lost its fineness of quality in the transmission and been coarsened into an undue self-assertion and irreverence. Says Dr. Oliver Wendell Holmes, in looking over our past:

"Yet somehow we have lost amidst our gain,
Some rare ideals time may not restore,
The charm of courtly breeding, seen no more,
And *reverence*, dearest ornament of all."

The national life is sustained by air that has lost its awe-inspiring properties, and the children innocently inhale the atmosphere all unconscious of the vitiation. A teacher enters the school-room expecting to meet the resistance of irreverent self-assertion. The sentinel nerves stand ready to sympathize with every threatening indication of an outbreak, and under this wrought-up tension, teaching is attempted and carried forward, under a nervous pressure unknown to any other mental occupation. Actual teaching does not wear out a teacher; it is the expenditure of nerve and will-power to hold the pupil in a necessary condition to be taught, that saps the teacher's strength. We do not mean that the passion for play that rules a healthy child-life is antagonistic to a teachable spirit; this is a normal

condition and full of suggestions of ways and means to the ingenious teacher. But there is a natural defiance of controlling authority in American children that presents an intangible barrier to the teacher's approach,—a kind of "annex" to the total depravity one is prepared to meet. To teach over and in spite of this characteristic obstruction of bristling self-assertion, is the great feat to be accomplished by American teachers. To fail to do this, is to be buried beneath the general epitaph, "Want of executive ability."

While spending a month at a family hotel last summer, filled with guests from wealthy and cultured homes, we were particularly struck with the deferential respect of the members of one family to each other, especially of the children for their parents. In parlor, balcony, and play-ground, but especially in the dining-room, was this most noticeable. The quiet repose in table manners, low tones, silence when others were speaking, led to the question: "Who are these people?" The answer, "From Beacon street in Boston," ought to have settled any matter; but the name did not suggest the Mayflower, and with the true Boston doubt of everything that didn't start there, we persisted in inquiry till the truth came at last. They were natives of Sweden, but had lived for the last eighteen years in England and had not yet become accustomed to the reverse positions that parents and children occupy in this country. Let what will be said of the subjugating influence of monarchical governments and of the evils of class distinction in contrast to our own heaven-ordained dispensations of "inalienable rights," the fact still remains that the fair flower of reverence has blossomed in fuller luxuriance under other skies than our own, and that we need to transplant its roots deep in our own soil without jealousy and with no false pride, *simply because our national growth is incomplete without it*, and we cannot afford to lose its refreshing fragrance. How to cultivate this attribute of character in our school-rooms, is the practical question growing out of this discussion. The opportunities are numberless when once the teacher has learned to recognize these shortcomings for what they really are. The efforts for the cultivation of this indispensable quality of a complete character, should be made, not in the narrow sphere of the teacher's personal benefit, but on the broader plane of the future good of the pupil as an American citizen. Let us cultivate in our children a reverence for law, in an abstract sense; for position; for age and the richness of its experience; for sacred things and their public observances; for the gentle courtesies of life, its proprieties and reasonable conventionalities; for the rights of the poorest souls that exist in the universe; and over and above all, a sacred reverence

for his own honor, that shall preserve his soul white and his hands clean to touch that mighty thing of lightest weight, the ballot,—whether it be deposited in some obscure corner of the vast republic, or in the congressional halls at the capitol. There is no need of set hours to inculcate these lessons. The tone of the child's voice, the look in the eye, the indifference to other's opinions, the untimely self-assertion,—all these will point to opportunities that must not pass unimproved if we would look for the *character-building* of the future American citizen. .

II.

Whatever may or may not be acknowledged as to the justice of other criticisms, there will be, we think, an instantaneous and half-pleased concession to the accusation that we are a rushing nation. The following conversation, cut from an *American* newspaper, not only illustrates this hurrying without a cause, but glimpses the complacent smile with which we confess it :

"Why does that gentleman rise from his seat?"

"Because he gets out at the next station."

"But we have not got near the next station yet."

"I beg your pardon. From an American point of view we are very near it. It is less than a mile away!"

"See! He rushes wildly toward the door, and now he is on the platform. Is he not in danger?"

"The only danger he dreads is the danger of losing one-quarter of a second."

"We are almost at the station now. Will he not wait till the cars stop?"

"No, indeed; that would be a waste of precious time."

"There he goes! The cars have run over him! They have picked him up. He speaks. Listen! Yes, he says; '*I die a true American.*'"

But there is a serious side to this morbid desire to "save time." The mother holds her breath while her boy jumps upon a horse-car in motion; if he falls he is punished; if he succeeds she may shake her head, but smiles softly to herself over her courageous boy. An engineer, to "make up time," risks the lives of hundreds in the dizzy speed of a lightning express, in the face of danger and collision. No censure if he succeeds. Only the glow of pleasurable excitement as we recount the success of this daring adventure. Success intoxicates us always, and the less time spent in acquiring that success adds proportionately to its value. We live in a whirl and revel in its

increasing velocity. We have no time to be sorry for those who cannot keep up with the current. Our sympathies are blunted, and the finer feelings lost in the dizzy speed of our practical lives. The consequences of this feverish haste, are seen in forms that may not be directly traceable to this cause. The effects on our schools in the overcrowded course of study, is too plainly seen to be repeated here. But the brusqueness that one meets whenever and wherever there are gathered together a sufficient number to cause a local whirlpool, —is not this one of the inevitable results of the locomotive speed of living that we regard so complacently? We have grown so accustomed to the hurried step, jerky bow, and abrupt reply in all business, and often in social relations, that we have ceased to notice them at all. We accept incivility and call it brevity. A reasonable courtesy will stamp a man as "very genial." Values are only estimated correctly in their comparison and relation to other things. The chilling abruptness of official despatch, which we regard as inseparable from executive force, is often shorn of its disguise when seen under different surroundings.

An American lady, after spending several months abroad, was obliged to consult the U. S. Consul at London upon a matter requiring government aid. Every day of absence from her native land had only made it dearer, and with genuine anticipation she sought the Consul's office; for would it not be a glimpse of home? The floating stars and stripes which guided her way to the building, seemed all the brighter in this dismal London blackness, and the "*E Pluribus Unum*" on the national emblems, up the first flight of stairs, seemed the symbol of *many* greetings in *one* clasp of welcome and proud protection. But an Arctic blast awaited her, sending sentiment to Zero, as she met the Consul and made known her errand. With a frigid abruptness, with which he would have disposed of an impostor for charity, he dismissed both the business and the lady, sending her to the American minister without explanation. Standing there alone before her country's representative, she begged for the direction to the locality and received—dead silence and a slip of paper containing an illegible street and number. As she turned away in disappointment and perplexity, an English laborer who was present, waiting some order, followed her down stairs, called a carriage, and stood with uplifted hat, giving her the only kind words of direction and assistance she had received. It may be of interest to add that the result proved the duty to have properly belonged to the Consul, who made an elaborate apology to the lady, after receiving an official reprimand from Washington, where the case was reported. Yet this

man's whole course would have passed unnoticed in any business transaction in our cities, multiplied, as it is, over and over again in every-day life, because of the way we submit to be treated; too much in a hurry ourselves to spend time to think of it. The true coloring of this incident, was only seen because of the change of setting in circumstances and surroundings. Is there any greater *need* in all the wide range of American education, than the cultivation of courtesy in every relation of life? And, since the moral effect of this high-pressure living is to make us unmindful of the rights and feelings of others, is it not a moral responsibility upon every teacher in the land to check the unconscious haste *in the children* before the momentum becomes so great that the warning hand will be too slight a thing to stay the onward progress? Is not the oft-repeated assertion that "American women have no repose of manner;" that they are nervous to invalidism, another serious result of this feverish haste in living? Is the endless catalogue of nerve troubles, that is stealing away the helpmeet quality in our women and turning our homemakers and home-keepers into wandering boarding-house inmates, unable and unwilling to meet household cares, but another result from this same cause? Is the hurried, anxious look upon the faces of our school-girls, the easy exhaustion, frequent school absences from illness, but the visitation of past excesses in nervous expenditure "upon the third and fourth generations"? Go to any girls' school in our large cities, and sit for one half-hour in each of the dozen rooms you may find there, and search for the serene, unanxious look that childhood and youth should wear. Watch them as they go to and from recitation and recess, and calculate the prospect for strong-nerved, reposeful women from that mass of hurrying girlhood, pushed solely by the force of the ever-increasing momentum of American life. If there be a class of human souls in all the wide world, who need to be physically strong, mentally capable, and spiritually refined and self-reliant, to meet the responsible future of limitless opportunity just opening before them, that class are the "little women" in our school-rooms to-day! Do not the teachers of our girls need to look at this matter with clear, unprejudiced eyes, searching for the cause of every unwholesome effect, and discouraging the passion of admiration for precocity and smartness, that has stolen like a subtle poison into the thousand veins of our national life, warping the judgment that can only estimate an excellence in education, by an arbitrary standard of percentages? Is there any more urgent *need* in American girls' education than in the attention to this one feature of hygienic reform; this laying of cooling fingers on the restless, throbbing pulse of the

future wives and mothers of the American citizen, training them to a serene, healthful, self-reliant womanhood that shall carry its powerful influence into every home of the future?

III.

Time will only permit the mention of one other cause for the judicious pruning in character-growth, that should begin in the school-life of the child. This can be best classed under the general term of our national conceit. The American citizen, whether in ripe development or in school-boy miniature, would be sadly lacking in one of the strongest protective influences that human character can feel, if he be not girded about with an ennobling, strengthening national pride that extends to his individual responsibility to live nobly in demonstration of its principles. We all remember how we read in our saddest days that wonderful story, "A Man Without a Country," when the terrible pathos of passing events brought it home to us with thrilling effect. In the story of this man that suffered the punishment of never hearing his country mentioned, or knowing aught of its welfare, and who gladly welcomed a longed-for death that he "might have a country again at last," we learned as never before how the love of country is as necessary to the completeness of life, as the love of kindred or friend. But how shall this just pride of country be fostered without rousing the danger of conceit? Only by the utmost care in teaching the child the exact grounds upon which this justifiable pride is based, justly and generously crediting other nations with every achievement and superiority of which history has informed us. *If a gathering of boy-princes from every reigning family on earth, could be brought together in one circle of royalty, the American boy could step into their midst, bearing a single sentence from our Declaration of Independence and stand the greatest of them all:* "We hold these truths to be self-evident, that all men are created equal; that they are endowed by their Creator with certain inalienable rights; that among these are life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness." The power in that single sentence, discrowning kings, demolishing thrones, and blotting out every dividing line of class-distinction, makes of every boy in America a little sovereign in his own right. Upon the underlying justice, equality, and fraternity that blend in the foundation principles of a republican government the American citizen must base his pride, too sacred in character, too lofty in its far-reaching height, to be lowered or stained by a vulgar, commonplace conceit. If the boasting about our national development in material resources, our unparalleled progress in manu-

factures, our marvelous ingenuity and inventive power that gave the world the great revolutionizing secret of electric communication over the land and under the sea ; if the natural and legitimate pride that an American youth *should* feel in these and numerous other achievements should degenerate into a narrowing conceit ; if the tares begin to grow among the wheat, *root them out* by the careful study of the discoveries and successes of other nations from the remotest periods. Let him find that the Spanish nation manufactured cotton a thousand years ago ; that the Egyptian priests wore linen garments ; that the Romans taught the manufacture of wool ; that paper has been made for nearly two thousand years, and the first book was printed four hundred years ago ; that locomotive power was employed in England at the beginning of the present century ; that the first patent for steam navigation was obtained nearly a hundred and fifty years ago ; and that the history of the human family has been written in the varied forms of its architecture, since the earliest dawn of civilization. America has but added her contribution, ingeniously fashioned it is true, to these towering monuments of civilization, whose foundations were laid ages ago, and whose crowning stones will only be reached in the far-distant future. Stepping into the refining atmosphere of literature and art, fill his mind and heart with loving appreciation of the choicest gems from our best authors, essayists, and poets, but do not fail to acknowledge that the world's highest admiration is given to men who wrote, sung, painted, and sculptured before the little colonies of America had even learned to stand alone. Yet time has only added charms to the genius of these gifted souls, and succeeding generations have prized them most, in the softened radiance of their life's afterglow. If our children could be made to feel that it is no detracting from the greatness of America, that we are in our infancy in literature and art ; that the fame of old masters could no more be expected of us, than the richness of age from the immaturity of youth, would it not go far to remove the uncalled-for sensitiveness of the future American citizen ? Our boys and girls close their study of U. S. History with a confused jumble of memorized dates, and a complacent consciousness that we have somehow beaten all the world that was worth the victory, and now rest secure in laurel crowns that every other nation is enviously criticizing. If our country's history, with its lights and shades, could be so taught, and the influence of school-life could be such that they would step forth from it in proud humility, and with a chastened sense of responsibility to guard the mighty interests of a Republic, as yet scarcely beyond the experimental stage, and depending for its future

stability upon just such reserve material as now compose our public schools, would it not be a strong stimulus for the sacrifice of mere personal ambition, to the broader one of repairing the wrongs of the past? Such problems as those of race and illiteracy, now confront the nation with all their dire possibilities, will not settle themselves if let alone; and the little children now in our school-rooms must be taught, that they have something else before them than office-seeking or office-holding, if America can ever show a consistent Republic that need fear no criticism.

During the recent convention at Chicago, we overheard an interesting conversation between a journalist and a lawyer of opposing politics, but carried on with unusual fairness and the absence of all partisan spirit, yet they both reached the same gloomy prediction of an extinct republic in the distant future.

" Ill fares the land to hastening ills a prey,
When wealth accumulates and men decay,"

quoted the journalist, after canvassing the merits of the political leaders on both sides. "The great question now is, how to evade the law rather than to obey it," said the lawyer; "and there is a great moral sentiment of the people needed to enforce laws that will not execute themselves; but where are the coming men that shall mould public opinion and assimilate these conflicting elements?" "*Our only hope lies in the children,*" said one of the gentlemen." "Yes, true," answered the other; "but that is the most completely hopeless conclusion of all, for each generation is more carelessly trained than the last." Here were two broad, calmly-reasoning men, looking from different points down their retreating lines of vision, yet seeing them meet at last at the same vanishing-point of a vanishing republic, in the dim perspective of future years. Without sharing their forebodings or gloomy prophecies,—far from it,—yet we were glad that individuals even, if not the great parties that they represented, could see that in the tread of the hosts of the on-coming children, the future generations will welcome their sole chance of victory against the disintegrating forces of a republican government, or hear, in the mighty advance of these myriad footsteps, the dead march of their national defeat.

Can we, as educators, ignore the responsibility of inculcating principles, that shall yield the fruitage of a self-sacrificing manhood and womanhood, willing to surrender personal prejudice and a narrow ambition, to the higher good of a nation's welfare? We may bring every child in our school-rooms up to the absurd standard of one

hundred per cent. in scholarship, and cover them, our work, and ourselves all over with a blaze of numerical glory, yet stand before that higher tribunal of intrinsic excellence, dwarfed and humbled, in our failure to train these children for their future participation in the world's action. Is there a single teacher in Madison to-day who will say that this is not the legitimate work of the school-room? As well step into a hot-house, and watch the forcing of plants into premature blossoming and call that the proper cultivation of plant-growth,—instead of fertilizing the soil, and giving the best conditions of sunshine and dew and all the healthful influences of nature, trusting to time and heaven to take care of the blossoming,—as to call a great proportion of the high-pressure results in our public schools, the proper training of children. God help us to realize that there *is* something else to be accomplished in our school-rooms, besides intellectual acquirements and mental discipline. We pause here in these suggestions of the "Needs of American Education." They sum up in the two words, *character-training*. The outstanding points that we have touched, have seemed most prominent and most neglected; but there are outlying paths leading from these in every direction, in which the children must not walk unguided and alone. Now that the full dawn of the New Education is lighting up the hilltops and sending its bright rays into the valleys, clearing away mists and showing the best pathways to the *minds* of our children, it has seemed best to call attention to the *character* side of school-room work, that must not be overlooked in the intense interest in New Methods. Does some teacher answer, that by these suggestions we have piled up the weight of responsibility already too heavy to be easily borne? Yes, just as the responsibility of the moral growth of our children must be felt and carried, though it increases the teacher's duties a hundred fold. Only many-sided chiselings ever brings the angel out of the marble. Will it be said, also, that teachers can do but little in carrying out these suggestions, if the influences outside the school-room are all in the opposite direction? Do we reason in that way in our *moral* instruction? Do we not feel an increased obligation in our duty to those children, who come from the worst home influences? The army of American teachers cannot enter into a crusade against these evils, without a perceptible weakening of their forces. But they must first be recognized *as* evils, before they will be attacked or conquered. America is too great and her position among the nations of the earth too proud, to have that greatness marred by any national faults which it is in the power of her people to correct. And since it is a law of our nature that our interest strengthens in that for which we sacrifice

most, this constant care of our habits of mind and thought, *as a nation's representative*, will not only improve our individual character, but deepen the love of country in proportion as we seek to guard its name from dishonor or reproach.

Have we seemed to call attention too much to the shadow-side of our beloved country? There has been no intention to even compare the brightness with the shadows. There *is* no comparison to be made between them. The sunny side is illuminating a world with its increasing brilliancy, and carrying hope and courage to every corner of the earth that feels its cheering influence.

The light that slowly lit up the Eastern sky eighteen centuries ago, paling the stars with its celestial splendor, did not proclaim "good tidings of great joy" more truly to the watching shepherds at midnight, than has the radiating glory of this American Republic pointed a world of struggling humanity to the land, where *the simple dignity of worthy manhood* transcends the glory of rank or inheritance. And to the little children of America must be committed the trust, to clear away every stain that has dimmed our history in the past, and to leave only the noblest record on the unwritten pages of the future.

THE CONSTANT IN EDUCATION.¹

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In his once celebrated treatise, entitled "Elements of Criticism," Lord Kames, after observing that "human nature is a complicated machine, and unavoidably so in order to answer its various purposes," makes these sagacious remarks; "The public indeed have been entertained with many systems of human nature that flatter the mind by their simplicity. According to some writers, man is entirely a selfish being; according to others, universal benevolence is his duty; one founds morality upon sympathy solely, and one upon utility. If any of these systems were copied from nature, the present subject might be soon discussed; but the variety of nature is not so easily reached" Dr. Mark Hopkins, writing a century and more later than Lord Kames, notices the same tendency in ethical science. He attributes the conflicting accounts that have been given of the nature and foundation of moral obligation mainly to "a partial apprehension and wrong adjustment of the facts and principles of our complex nature." "A striking fact, as of association, or a powerful principle, as of self-love or sympathy, is seized upon," he says, "and made to account for everything."² These observations, so eminently true in their own place, can be transferred with a few verbal changes to the history of education. Educational theories have been as narrow and partial and transitory as ethical theories. Sometimes, views of human nature, altogether too simple, have been made their basis; and sometimes, a striking fact or powerful principle has had an undue influence on the minds of their authors.

How famous, and how excellent when at their best, were the schools of the Jesuits, is well known even to general and superficial readers of the history of education. But with all their fame and all their excellence these schools strikingly illustrate the consequences that flow from narrow theories and imperfect methods. The creators of these schools saw the great value of a definite course of study. They discovered "that a course [of teaching] in which uniform method tends to a definite goal would, on the whole, be more successful than one in which a boy has to accustom himself, by turns, to half a dozen

¹ A paper read at Madison, Wis., before the National Teachers' Association.

² "The Law of Love," p. 2.

different methods, invented at hap-hazard by individual masters, with different aims in view, if, indeed, they have any aim at all."¹ They make another discovery — one that almost needs to be made over again — viz., that frequent changes of teachers are unfavorable to the progress of the pupil. They clearly saw, also, the immense value of thorough instruction. Accordingly, they devised the "Ratio Studiorum," which was a scheme of studies; they promoted the teacher with the pupil year by year, if possible, and provided that change of teachers, when it came, should not bring change of method or of management. The ordained instruction must be given according to the ordained methods. To secure uniformity a rigid and comprehensive system of supervision was established. First and highest in the hierarchy stood the General of the order; next stood the Provincial, appointed by the General; thirdly, the Rector of the school, appointed by the General, and responsible to the Provincial; fourthly, the Prefect of studies, appointed by the Provincial; and finally, the Teacher, subject to the Rector and Prefect. Great stress was laid on repetition. Each lesson began with a recital of what had been learned on some previous day or days; it closed with a re-recital of the lesson for the day. One lesson each week was given to repetition; and in the lowest form, the second half of each year was wholly devoted to repeating what had been learned the first half.

Here are several things that are most noteworthy: A prescribed course of study, unfrequent changes of teachers, supervision, and thoroughness. What could be more admirable? It was mainly owing to these features that the Jesuit schools succeeded; it was mainly owing to the same features that they failed. The Jesuits were schoolmasters rather than educators. They gave the receptive and reproductive faculties a splendid development, but neglected the faculties of origination and discovery. They paid more attention to learning than to truth. They made scholars, men of erudition, not thinkers, investigators, explorers. The individuality of the teacher was constantly suppressed. Macaulay says of the Jesuits, in his admirable way: "They wanted no talent or accomplishment into which men can be drilled by elaborate discipline; but such discipline, though it may bring out the powers of ordinary minds, has a tendency to suffocate rather than to develop original genius. "They appear," he says again, "to have discovered the precise point to which intellectual culture can be carried without risk of intellectual emancipation."² The Jesuits teach two lessons impressively enough to last forever,— what mere drill *can* do, and what mere drill *cannot* do.

¹Quick: "Educational Reformers," p. 16.

²History, Chap. VIII.

Locke observed that the teachers of his time failed to touch a spring of marvelous power in child-nature; viz., love of amusement. He saw that teaching was made irksome and repulsive rather than engaging and pleasant. He, therefore, proposed to combine instruction and sport, study and play. Nothing like work should be laid on children. In the cases of young children, "the great use and skill of a teacher," he says, "is to make all as easy as he can." In the next century, Basedow went farther in the same direction, if possible, than Locke; he made studies games. Some of his school exercises were simply ludicrous. That Locke and Basedow laid bare a great defect in the teaching of their times, and suggested an important corrective, is indisputable; but that they carried their idea as far as to conflict with the principle so firmly stated by Pestalozzi is all indisputable. "I am convinced that such a notion will forever preclude solidity of knowledge, and from want of sufficient exertions on the part of the pupils, will lead to that very result that I wish to avoid by my principle of a constant employment of the thinking powers. A child must very early in life be taught the lesson that exertion is indispensable for the attainment of knowledge."¹

In the days of Rousseau, society was artificial in the worst sense. Authority was the ruling principle in church, in state, and in school. The life of a child was restrained and cribbed to an extent simply marvelous. Probably some progress had been made in the right direction since the day that Luther, writing of the vexations and torments attending declining and conjugating, characterized schoolmasters as tyrants and executioners, and schools as prisons and hells in which nothing was ever taught; and said that he himself had been whipped "fifteen times one morning without any fault of his own, having been called on to repeat what he had never been taught,"²—probably some progress had been made since that day; but schools and teachers and child discipline were still absurdly unnatural and horribly severe. Rousseau saw this with the clearness that marked all his observations of man and society. Naturally, therefore, as a part of his demand that men should return to "Nature," he insisted, virtually, upon the abrogation of authority over children, and said they should be left to themselves. Until he is 12 years of age, Emil shall know nothing about books; he shall not even know what a book is, at least as the result of external tuition; no control or authority that is apparent or conscious to Emil shall be exerted over him; his education must be purely negative; "do nothing and let nothing be done," is the ideal. The root idea here is, time and opportunity

¹ Quick: "Educational Reformers." p. 193. ² Kostlin: "Life of Martin Luther," p. 13

for the child to vegetate and "stool out,"—time for life and character to grow from within outward. That Rousseau did a great and much-needed work, goes without the saying; and that he carried his doctrine of "Nature" to an extreme, basing his theories of government and education on two narrow premises, requires no argument to prove. However, it is worth inquiring whether we are not tending in one direction that Rousseau rightly reprobated,—the too early development of the child. Is it not true, for example, that the school, with its books and methods and teachers, is over-prominent in child-life; and is it not true that more nature and a less early development of the self-consciousness would be a gain? Whatever the answer to this question may be, the name of Rousseau brings us at once to the great educational movement of our times. This is an attempt to divest education of the mechanical, barren, severe, and even cruel features that were once so prominent, and to make it natural, fruitful, humane, and even pleasant. This movement embraces four particulars :

First : An effort to discover and to interpret the facts of the child-mind.

Secondly : An effort to select and to combine in a course of study, studies that are consonant with these facts.

Thirdly : An effort to invent methods of instruction adapted to the child-mind.

Fourthly : An effort to establish a discipline that shall secure order and develop character.

These ideas have powerfully stirred all enlightened communities, at least in this country. They are the cause of what is most characteristic in our public school education. They are the sources of our "developing processes," "natural methods," "normal systems," and "new educations." They are a fountain that sends forth bitter water and sweet; the bitter being the deluge of educational quackery that constantly sweeps over the land. As the champions of the so-called "new education" claim that this is the latest and ripest product of educational wisdom, I shall devote to it three or four paragraphs.

And first, it is not easy to define the new education. In the narrowest sense, the phrase seems to describe certain methods of primary instruction. However, in the sense that I shall use it, the phrase is the name of something that is really much more comprehensive and valuable. Secondly, the new education, as I use the name, is not a canon of principles and methods agreed upon by approved professors. Indeed, the attempt to create such a canon would clash at once with that repudiation of authority and that assertion of freedom and in-

dividuality which are put forth as first principles. Nor, in the third place, is there much in the new education that is really new. The principal facts and principles on which it is built have all been stated time and again in the clearest and boldest language. Much of the New Education originated with Socrates, and more of it originated with Jesus. "I have many things to say unto you, but you cannot bear them now;" is the best extant statement of that invaluable principle. Dr. Sauveur's "Natural Method of Teaching Living or Ancient Languages" no doubt lies within the compass of the subject. But the fundamental principles of this method were known to the Oxford Reformers. Colet and his compeers saw the folly of an exclusive grammar and dictionary method of teaching language. M. Littre's suggestion, "To begin with authors and to end with grammar, instead of beginning with grammar and ending with authors," is hardly any improvement on directions given by Colet, by Ascham, and by Montaigne. Montaigne also anticipated one of the most valuable maxims of the new school; he insisted upon holding to things, and not contenting one's self with words.

What, then, justifies the name "New Education"? I see two things, and only two:

First: Clear insight into facts, principles, and methods. This insight is no deeper and clearer than was sometimes shown in former times; but it is shared by many more persons. Instead of being the sole possession of a rare thinker here or a superior teacher there, these facts and methods have come to be the property of a large and increasing number of minds. What was proof of genius in Ascham or Montaigne now only proves that one shares in the common stock of educational ideas. If the new school have not discovered new truths, they have given wings to old truths.

Secondly: The best educators of to-day seek to bring together, and to fuse into one whole, facts, principles, and methods that have heretofore been widely, but thinly scattered. They seek to harvest and garner the whole field, from the sages of high antiquity to the essayists and teachers of our own time. If I may borrow a word from a related science, "Systematic Pedagogy" is beginning to appear.

These two things History will accord to the present age. They are an attempt to find and to combine the various facts and principles pertaining to child-nature, to studies, and to methods that have been approved by past experience, and then to carry still further the investigations that have led to their discovery. The only new education that is worth considering is an effort to know and to practice the best things that have been thought and said on the subject, just as

Matthew Arnold says culture is "knowing the best that has been thought and said in the world."

We must not blind ourselves to the fact that there has been good education since the day that men began to study and to teach. Not to go to antiquity, even under the reign of Lily's Grammar, and before that when methods were still more barbarous,—nay, in the darkest days of dialectical hair-splitting and word-defining, there were good teachers and students and scholars. Moreover, good teaching has been more abundant in the past than we are apt to think. Too frequently our judgments rest on external features; too unfrequently they fail to go to the heart of the matter. One teacher may instruct orally, another may use text books; one may find his materials in nature, another in literature; one may use science as his instrument, another mathematics or philosophy; but if they are all good teachers they will impart knowledge, energize mind, and develop character. Then the value of the teacher's peculiar methods, important as they are, is commonly overestimated. To a degree these are private property, a part of the teacher's indefeasible personal estate. A Mohammedan neophyte had listened with wonder to the tales about Omer; he longed to see the sword with which the hero had won his victories. Introduced to the great chief, he expressed surprise on seeing the weapon that hung by his side. Omer remarked that the secret of victories is not in the sword, but in the arm and in the heart of the warrior. No more is the secret of education in methods. Consider, for example, the various ways of teaching reading; the A-B-C method, the Word method, the Phonetic method, the Sentence method, etc. Now, I am far from saying that one of these methods is as good as another; but it is a fact that children did learn to read, and to read well, in the old days when they learned their letters in the most literal sense. Touching reading, Mr. Swinton tells the simple truth when he says the notation of our composite language is made up of fragments of the notations of the various languages from which it is derived, and that the pupil needs help from every device and theory.

Perhaps my remarks thus far appear scattering and wide of the subject. If so, I trust it is in appearance only. I have sought to show, (1) That educational theories and methods have usually been too narrow and exclusive; (2) That they have been, as it is best they should be in a degree, in a constant flux; (3) That the correction of one error has been followed by another lying at the opposite pole; (4) That there is something in education which transcends theory,—something which survives the flux of method,—something

which is permanent and ever-living. This permanent, ever-living, transcending something is the constant in education. This element is the pupil's own free, intelligent, personal effort to learn. If this be present, the absence of much else may be excused ; if this be absent, the presence of all else only makes the failure the more signal and striking. Studies may change, methods alter, theories vary, and teachers come and go ; but if pupils will work freely and intelligently, good educational work will be done. We have here, therefore, the scale and the measure by which to try theories and methods, teachers, and schools. If a teacher deadens the mind of the pupil and dampens his zeal for knowledge, our verdict is condemnation ; but if he energizes the mind, kindles the sacred fire of learning, and stimulates the pupil to self-activity, our verdict is approval. It is the everlasting glory of Socrates that he roused his pupils out of sleep, compelled them to know what they *knew* as well as what they did *not* know, and then sent them with a mighty impulse along pathway of self-improvement. This is his great message to modern educators.

Now, the fatal criticism on many teachers and schools is, that they send this all-important fact to the rear. Noisy pretenders advertise their methods as education made easy. They undertake to teach the French or German language in six months or six weeks (I just forget which). Some man of small ability or honesty, or both, discovers or borrows a "new method" ; straightway he opens a private school, founds an "institute," establishes a "normal school" or "college," and advertises that he will give a better education than the colleges furnish in one-half the time. This is quackery ; but there is a tendency which is not confined to quacks, to make far too little of the child's apparently humble and feeble effort. To value *that* effort highly detracts from the glory of the teacher and his "system." Moreover, to advertise a device in education as saving both time and money well suits the American temper. One result is, that the public is sometimes misled, and that injustice is done to meritorious ideas and methods. Thus, it requires no prophet to tell that the kindergarten, in this country at least, will never justify the extravagant expectations created in its behalf a few years ago ; the historian can already tell us that. Nor can I resist the conviction that the new education, to a degree, lies under this criticism. Many of its devotees have so much to say of "the saving of time," "the economy of labor," and "the rich fruits" to follow the adoption of "natural methods," that, relatively, they fail to appreciate the fact that still pupils must work long and faithfully to become scholars, and that much of their work will be dry and irksome. This is true of the genuine new education ;

much more of it true of the spurious "new education" that assigns most of the work done in the school to the teacher, and that accomplishes little for the pupil beyond making him superficial and talkative. Few things American more impress a cultured foreigner than a bright American school. It is smart and interesting; there is abundant life and action; the unfolding of subjects is excellent: but the flow of knowledge and the skillful exposition belong only too often to the teacher. Dr. Dale clearly saw this when he visited us a few years ago.¹ He also saw, as every discriminating judge must see, that the school would be really better if there were fewer flowing descriptions and illustrations by the teacher, and more halting ones by the pupil. It is pretty clear that formerly children were left too much with their books. "Studying" was quite too prominent in their schooling. The book needed the teacher's genius to make it live and speak. But now, with our "oral instruction," "graphic work," and "illustrative methods," are we not swinging to the other extremity of the arc?

Prof. C. K. Adams says his method of teaching history "never ceases to remember that at least three-fourths of all the time spent by a boy of twelve in trying to learn a hard lesson out of a book is thrown away. Perhaps one-fourth of the time is devoted to more or less desperate and conscientious effort; but the large remaining portion is dawdled away in thinking of the last game of ball and longing for the next game of tag."² Accordingly, Professor Adams recommends direct instruction in the form of attractive and popular narration. This may all be very true of history-teaching. Moreover, real mental activity is not limited to the use of books. But instruction involves discipline as well as knowledge; and however the teacher's talk may answer the ends of knowledge, it will not answer the ends of discipline. There must be study, and the study of books, before the pupil is twelve years old. We cannot despise the printed page. Nay, cramming has its uses, and I would have the pupil learn how to cram. The physician in active practice crams. The lawyer's preparation to try a case is often only cramming; the greatest counsel rarely do so much as to prepare their briefs. The statesman must cram. And so with the man of business. In fact, every man of actual intellectual life is compelled to take up subjects hastily and to acquire some of their leading facts quickly. Now, we cannot learn to cram by cramming; the best preparation for such struggles is the discipline and self-mastery that come from thorough study;

¹ See "Impressions of America," pp. 155, *et seq.*

² "Methods of Teaching and Studying History," p. 174.

but there is a measure of truth in the paragraph that I now quote: "Some men,—and those whose judgment is not least worthy of respect,—have maintained that the dead strain of reading up for an examination is not a bad preparation for the work that is often to be done in life,—the gathering up of the faculties for a prolonged effort. To say that learning so acquired does not stick, is a feeble objection. Forgetting has its own use, and, in many things, to have learned how to learn is all that is needed. Having learned to learn is, indeed, worth far more as a preparation for life than any particular information."¹

My contention, then, is for the constant in education,—the pupil's own free, active, and intelligent effort. The smooth phrases now current, "normal development," "natural method," and "new education," must not make us deaf to its incalculable importance. Orpheus built his Thebes by playing on his flute; but we shall never build ours in a similar manner.

¹ "The Nation," No 900.

WOMAN'S WORK IN EDUCATION.

BY MRS. MAY WRIGHT SEWALL.

This evening is not to me of merely grave importance, not merely of secondary interest, but it is to me of historic suggestion and of historic value, for, grateful as I am for it, glad as I am to seize upon this opportunity and use it, proud as I am of the noble women who will follow me, with words of eloquence and wisdom and instruction, yet I recognize this as merely an historic survival. This occasion is a survival from the time now dead, when every church held its distinct corner for distinct and inferior classes. Not that we are considered inferior; not that we are brought here as curiosities to be exhibited; we are I know welcomed by our loyal-hearted president as having equal claim upon this platform with men; still it is a picture, still it is a survival from that time, and of greater interest to me as a survival than from any other standpoint. One thing, if the gentlemen who have spoken before various sections of this convention will permit me in perfect good humor to allude to it, and if they will in perfect good humor receive it, will illustrate my meaning. Notwithstanding the fluttering of fans and the fluttering of ribbons, and the gay waving of plumes, and the glancing smiles, and the eloquent blushes from the audience, speakers have persisted in addressing their audiences as "gentlemen." Doubtless a preconceived supposition of who would be here has been more to them than the testimony of their eyes, and notwithstanding the major part of their audiences, save the audience of superintendents convened this afternoon, notwithstanding the major part of every audience has been constituted of women, gentlemen have absolutely been enabled to see them, and have persistently addressed the remarks, which women were assiduously endeavoring to hear and profit by, to men.

However, as I have but fifteen minutes of time, I will address myself to briefly discussing two or three of the points in which I think women have contributed to the work of education in this country. The first visible effect of women's entrance upon the profession of teachers was the amelioration of discipline in the school-room. I will not be so presumptuous as for one moment to assume that that amelioration sprang from the greater tenderness of woman, that it sprang from the greater consideration of woman, that it sprang from greater philosophical insight into the child's

needs and the effects of various orders of discipline. I confess freely that the first effect of woman's influence in the profession, the amelioration of discipline, was the direct result of her inferior physical strength. This inferior physical strength compelled women to substitute for the physical agencies that had before been used, spiritual ones. Not the increased happiness of the child in the school, not the increased physical safety of the child in the school, not the increased physical care and comfort, was the greatest gain from this amelioration of discipline, but so soon as spiritual agencies were introduced we learned that spirit kindled spirit.

The moral sense is a divining rod, and so soon as the moral sense of the teacher was brought to bear upon the child, so soon, and never before, were the moral powers of childhood discovered. It is true indeed that softer discipline, that moral suasion, that spiritual force, were resented by the big boys. He demanded the birch and the rawhide and ferule upon his teacher's desk as external symbols of the superior animal force by which alone he wished to be bound. Notwithstanding the big boy's resentment, which for a time worked out its purpose, and confined women teachers in the country to district schools in the summer, when the big boy could not be there, notwithstanding that, the spiritual agencies substituted by women were necessarily soon adopted by men, and the growth of the moral powers, which had, perhaps by accident, or, at least unconsciously, been discovered by women, was thenceforth conscientiously and studiously developed. This seems to me the second great contribution made by women to our profession, the discovery of the child's moral powers, and the conscientious, intelligent, and studious prosecution of effort to develop and train those moral powers. With rattan and birch in hand it is quite impossible for our profession to make a successful prosecution of psychological study. The third great contribution of woman to our profession, it seems to me, we owe again to a deficiency. I hope the gentlemen in the audience will mark the modesty with which I make the claims for our sex. We owe what they have given us to our defects. It was without doubt the inadequate education of women, the inadequate education with which women began their work, which enabled them or led them or forced them into such laborious, painstaking, conscientious efforts to make the very most of their feeble resources, whereby they learned also to economize the child's powers. The waste of childhood the world knows, and the world weeps, and the world bewails, and from the waste of childhood the world, I will not say never will, but, it seems to me through ages and ages, cannot recover. So the economy of childish power, of childish talent, of childish love, of childish zeal, following the necessary economy of the teacher's own powers was the third great contribution made by her sex to professional advancement. Thus far the moral effects have been chiefly noted. I wish briefly to review other limitations.

The very same feeling, the very same line of thought, the same arguments that held the first generation of teachers in the district schools in the summer term, later held the next generation of teachers in the primary departments of the city schools, the thought being that the little child can be swayed by moral means only, the little child can be led by such moral agencies as the defective physical force of woman made necessary, perhaps underlying that this farther thought, that only the young child is yet near enough to God to be held remote from man and the physical agencies of discipline which he would enforce upon the child. Gradually the woman walked through the elementary departments, through the grammar departments, into the high school. Still the thought remained that nature had endowed man for the ruling places there, and as a principal of high schools, only very recently has woman been given the opportunity to show what she might do. Still the thought remains that for the executive labor that falls to the superintendent, a man yet must be retained, and only very rarely are women called upon to fill those places, kept from them by the same limitations of thought, the same limitations of feeling, the same limitations of prejudice, even in this relatively enlightened hour, that they were at first kept entirely from the school-room. Women do, however, hold the office of superintendent, and in these higher places, as superintendents, as principals, as professors in colleges, as tutors, the same agencies are working to the same results, and the insight, ability, which lies at the basis of psychology, psychology necessarily lying at the basis of instruction, is going through her work with the larger as through her work with the younger. The intellectual contributions of woman to education can hardly be sketched. One may say there is not much yet to tell. Naturally, so far, woman's best efforts have been given to the young of their own sex, for the educated woman's first feeling, I might almost say her primary conviction, is that her duty binds her to her own sex, that she may make to them possibilities for such training as was denied to her. So most of the great teachers among women, those whose names have become at all illustrious in the profession, have become so in connection with girls' schools or women's colleges, established and carried forward by them in the hope, expressed or unexpressed, of, through these efforts, by and by, attaining the absolute equality that the first aspiring women dreamed of. From these limitations has come one more contribution which I cannot forbear to mention, that which we may call the inspiration of the profession. I do not doubt that the gentlemen present, as well as the women present, if their school-days are sufficiently near to have placed them under the influence of women teachers, would join in the testimony that it was the women teachers rather than the men teachers who have inspired them with the ambition to go beyond what seemed to be the limits of their possibilities, under their instruction. This inspiration, which may spring from what may be called

the intuitional or the emotional nature of woman, has yet been a great contribution. How is that inspiration illustrated in this meeting?

To me, ladies and gentlemen, it has been a most touching sight to see the women from the Gulf of Mexico, and the women from the Pacific slope, who had endured the expense, the burdens, the fatigues of a long and wearisome journey, that they might come to meet with the teachers who, coming from the supposed, and probably the truly supposed, more enlightened sections of the country, could give to them such help as they could not get within their own States. I believe myself that woman's farther contribution in the school in our profession will be closely connected with the effort which statesmen have in mind, but so far have failed to make good. If the chasm that has divided sections of our country is ever to be bridged, it will be bridged by the school and the home; it will be bridged, not by the efforts made at the ballot-box, it will be bridged by the intelligent, the conscientious, the patriotic, the devoted instruction given in the schools of North and South to the boys and girls within those schools. This is one glimpse of intellectual help that shall come side by side with the moral help that has come, and in direct line with the flow of moral help that still continues from woman's work in education; but, above all, I must believe that, this intellectual service being rendered, the moral service rendered by woman in our profession will remain her great service. I believe that, within my own memory of current opinion, I can see that the current opinion regarding daily moralities has been greatly modified by the influence of women in our public schools. Women there, competing more on an equality with men than in any other profession or walk in life, have gained that accuracy, that promptness, that sense of punctuality, of order, of business integrity, theretofore monopolized by men. Men, there competing with women, have attained an almost feminine purity. That is not perhaps the final, but one of the great contributions of women in their work in education.

WOMAN'S WORK IN EDUCATION.

BY LOUISA HOPKINS.

Woman's work in education is distinctive ; it differs in *kind* from that of man. The element of sex enters into the constitution of mind and determines the sphere and quality of intellectual activity. According to the principle of the continuity of law, the mental and moral nature as well as the physical is conditioned by sex ; this gives limitations, but it also gives expansions. We have been too apt to look at the limitations. Women are naturally and properly offended by a crude, low, and physical statement of the limitations of sex ; the physical outlines are typical and indicate the *plan* of the three-fold being. The *mind* and *soul* of woman are as strongly and thoroughly conditioned by sex as the body ; science has as yet scarcely touched the question of the *mental* and *moral* differences of sex. I offer a slight contribution to the analysis of that difference and to its indications as to the nature of woman's educational work.

There are two kinds of intellectual and moral function, viz. : that of immediate and tangible expression and that of structural and organic in-building. Both these functions are common to the sexes, but the first is the supreme function of man ; the second, the supreme function of woman. The exercise of the first produces concrete works of art, science, and literature,—the exercise of the second produces *cell*, *nerve*, and *fibre* of mind and of soul ; this latter is the transmissible capital of intellectual and moral power ; it must be conserved not expended. What is wholly spent is exhausted ; it is the unexpressed genius of one generation that is carried over to the next. Some one has said that it is the repressed energies of the father that are worked out in the son. It is not without design that woman's mind and soul are framed for unconscious and organic activity rather than for exhaustive expression ; the significance for us of this fact is in the indication of woman's vocation. Nature (not man, not society, not outward circumstances, not tradition), has moulded the history of woman's achievement. If she has failed as man's competitor it is because she has made the mistake of trying to assume functions as supreme which nature has not made supreme in woman, and in trying to subordinate functions which nature intended should be dominant. We speak now of intellectual functions. Do we complain of nature ? is it less honorable to conserve for larger uses than to expend in more obvious expression ? Nature has held woman back from equal or superior direct accomplishment to man in science, literature, and art, because it ordained her for indirect

agency in those realms. Woman has not represented herself by a Newton, a Shakespeare, a Goethe, a Beethoven, a Raphael—but she has by unnoted processes built up the brain cells of humanity, created the sense for beauty and harmony by the operation of her structural determination of mind-function; this power does not win the instant applause of the unthinking world, but is as worthy and more enduring than that which does; it pushes the race onward and upward, it pervades and evolves humanity. This structural determination of woman's mind gives her quicker intuitions than man; this intuitive action has been counted as a weakness by many, but what is it the result of—is it not the result of thoroughly organized thought? thought so long habituated to the mind as to have become automatic, unconscious, organic; processes are lost sight of, axioms take the place of conscious deduction; it is the sum of race-thinking and race-knowledge; it is knowledge and thought packed into brain and mind-power; this intuitional quality of woman's mind makes her work distinctive; she cannot do her best work in the line of man's best work—her rights and privileges, her expansions as well as her limitations she must accept from nature; she must believe her position to be not inferior to that she would have chosen, she must throw herself into sympathy with it, not struggle against it, then will she dignify it and it will dignify her.

But although the most obvious purpose of this difference of sex in mind is transmission, yet as a direct educational force it is constantly active; it does not preclude acts of specific effort. Woman is by no means destitute of the faculty of immediate expression, of ability to work intellectually as man works, but her sex of mind fits her for that kind of work in education which we may call *nurture*. Plato set forth *nurture* as the highest form of education; it is the unfolding in the personal atmosphere, the unconscious influence of culture and character, a harmony which envelops the subject of educative effort until the mind and soul grow as the flowers grow in the sunlight and the air. In this sphere are born the ideals of harmony and true education. Paths of knowledge may be explored, culture must become perfect by aggregation as well as by growth; she may learn and teach specifically, but above and through all this, must work her educational power as a woman, that with which the quality of her mind has endowed her, the unconscious, the intuitional, the harmonizing power of nurture. Directly in the channel of all this determination of sex is the finer moral sense, nicer perception, and keener sensitiveness of the soul in woman—also the accumulative tendency of her forces which prepares her for continuous strain, which gives her more steady faith and patience and helps her to do without the vulgar plaudit; to dispense with the sudden reward, and to wait for the harvest of that larger sowing.

To this end is woman so closely connected with the next generation,

that nurture may be complete. Her work in education begins with the breath of life, is unintermittent and affectional, inspired by the very essence of her nature as woman; it is so truly and thoroughly inspired that it amounts to a revelation; its instinctive methods are the gospel of education. The greatest genius of modern educational science acknowledged this and made the nursery his university. Fröbel sat down at the mother's feet and tried to write the alphabet of educational science. Let woman trust her intuitions as Fröbel trusted them, and work in the glory of her instinctive functions, to surround man from the cradle to the grave with the harmony, the purity, the sweetness, and the grace which nature made so much more accessible to her than to man, and she will fill her place as an educator. Let her never forget that her work means soundness and completeness, not disproportion and one-sidedness; she may instruct in a department of science, and do it well, but more largely by virtue of her sex. She is to develop the whole being of her pupils harmoniously, to nurture both mind and soul, and though it may be unconsciously, yet if she be a true woman it is inevitably; this is what God is doing through her, even while she in her own proper self attempts mere teaching. Character, taste, thought, feeling, all these are being wrought out by her intrinsic personality through any relation which her specific connections establish for her; - that these may be wrought out purely to a noble pattern, she must have built up in herself that noble pattern, the structural propensity of her nature must furnish in herself the source of that wonder-working atmosphere, that ethereal and magnetic influence which transmutes all it touches. This penetrating influence will reach to the inward life of every subject of its educative activity; it feels its way into homes, into hearts, into springs of life to be redistributed. It is the harmonizing power in the development of the race, it works unobservedly and all of a sudden, the wide earth is conscious of its great results.

The soul of woman is conditioned by sex to finer methods of conduct, to more responsive sympathies, both human and divine, than is man's soul. What a force this gives her as an educator! Nothing crude or mechanical is worthy of woman as means or methods of education. Woman's work in education is so fine, so high, so loving as to redeem each generation if it were accepted and occupied by woman. Woman may be professionally a teacher of sewing, of music, of history, or of mathematics; but essentially she is a teacher of all that she is or can communicate through this unconscious miracle of influence, of nurture, intellectual and moral. If she should assume this her natural function as an educator and address herself to the highest and most harmonious development of human nature how far-reaching and free would be her power!

There is a class of women of the best American culture, graduates of

colleges who, having been led to this kind of work through implicit obedience to their spiritual intuitions, following the directions of that book which I would call, the History and Science of the soul of man, carrying on a great and far-reaching mission of education in other lands, and among the Indians of our own land; they have planted schools of every grade, all the higher schools, of which are normal schools, in China, India, and Turkey; they have established a penetrating system of home work: they have revolutionized the physical condition of woman and their dispensaries and personal medical attendance have taken hold of the physical problem with an unflinching courage. Sixty-four teachers have gone out from one school in Turkey in nine years; forty of the graduates were in one year teaching sixteen hundred native girls.

Mrs. Capron at Madura has one thousand women under her influence. The colleges in Armenia and Constantinople offer as wide a curriculum as our own best schools (these are only examples), and in all these the body, mind, and soul, the whole being, is harmoniously developed so that an immeasurable influence has been spread noiselessly abroad through those lands to elevate, to educate, to civilize, and to christianize, teaching the Bible as a science in every school. In these last days its harvest has been gathered in by that splendid apostle of Oriental Christianity, Keshub Chunder Sen who did not hesitate to recognize it in large measure as the result of this truly womanly work. The *British Quarterly Review* says: "We doubt whether the Americans are doing anything in Turkey, that is so sure sooner or later to change the entire character of society as what they are doing for the education of the women of Turkey."

I can only point to this great educational movement of American women abroad as an illustration of the power of intuitional methods, as well as of harmonious and complete aims. I refer you for the great array of facts to the Reports of the Woman's Board of Foreign Missions—auxiliary to the American Board.

Woman must take herself—her whole consecrated self into her work, to teach perhaps, but more largely and distinctively to *nurture*, through the influence of her personal culture and the magnetic forces of her intellectual and spiritual intuition, conserved as nature designed, not spent in exhaustive acts of constant expression; thus will she accomplish her work.

Das Unansprechliche
Hier wird es Zathan
Das Swig Weibliche
Zieht uns hinm.

WOMAN'S WORK IN EDUCATION.

BY MISS FRANCES E. WILLARD.

Dear Friends: I quite enjoyed the idea of this symposium as they call it,—a woman's symposium,—a woman's evening,—and here we are to have it all our own way. I thought it a very liberal idea on the part of the President of the Association, and certainly liberal on the part of our friends who, in such large numbers, have gathered here to listen while the women have their say about their views, for we are full of views. I think to say that you have views is a very modest matter. It simply says, we have reached up to a certain height on the great mountain of truth, and as I look out from my point of view, I inevitably, necessarily, by the laws of things, see a certain landscape, and that is my view, and I would just like to have you come around and stand where I do, and you will likely see just as I do. So we are always coaxing people to come around and see our view. I have had some thoughts about this matter of which the lady spoke who just took her seat. Now I confess that I intended to begin with a quotation with which she just closed, only I had it a little differently translated, "The great Feminine draweth on." The great French romancer, Victor Hugo, said that the nineteenth century is the woman's century, and here we are right in the midst of it, and I am sure I am ever so glad to be here just at this particular time. I am glad that I am alive, and that I have a part in an age so liberal toward women, for I remember that more than a century or so back—I remember by the telescope of literature—I am not here confessing that I go as Oliver Wendell Holmes said, away back in 1800 and ever so far, though the calendar might bear me out in that form of expression, but I remember that in my studies of English literature I read about a genial, noble, and gifted man of England, one of the leading lights of literature, who said that, "If any woman of my name should have the effrontery to set to work and write a book I would disown her from that out." He said that, and do you know that Archbishop Fenelon, a friend of the noble and gifted Madam Guion, was willing to say, "For a woman to be learned is almost as bad as for her to be vicious." That was one style of man. I do not consider it the highest style of man.

Assuredly it was not the twentieth century man that said any such thing as that, and we have a good many of twentieth century men around about in America. I do not know as they have that species in any other country; I have not seen them in any other, but, as the age ran on, and

this new style of man began to be more prominent in public affairs, he rose in his place in the great parliamentary man, the concentration of the world of thought, and he said, "Nonsense about women writing books! If they can do it, let them go right to work and do that very thing,—write just as good a book as ever they can, and we will buy the book, and perhaps we will read it, and throw up our hats in the air, and say, write some more, and we will buy them and read them too." And so when it was said by our brothers, the dominant power, for that they were, they made public opinion on this subject more than anybody else. When that became the general idea, then if you had listened, you would have heard the voice of Elizabeth Barrett Browning with the "Cry of the Human," so tender and sweet. You have heard as I have in this wonderful age Julia Ward Howe with her "Battle Hymn of the Republic," and Harriet Beecher Stowe with her epic of the slave. You would have heard Dinah Mulock with her pictures of home life, not equalled in any literature, and women came forth, when the great thunder cloud of prejudice went rumbling below the horizon, a good deal after the manner of the sound of those cannon we heard here to-night,—women came forth after the manner of singing birds just after a thunder-storm, and they are warbling about in this pleasant air, and it makes it far more musical. Then away back in ever so far, there were men that said that women must not be taught, they must not go to the schools, for, if they do, it will change the whole regime and plan of creation and be the very worst of all the curses that ever afflicted humanity; but there were other men, like Horace Mann, who said, "Nonsense, let the women sit down beside their brothers at the banquet of Minerva even, as at their homesteads, they are seated beside us;" and then women came forth and took their places in the academies and universities and in the ranks of teachers, until two-thirds of our teachers are women to-day; and if you want to find the gentlest and strongest and noblest types of women look at the teachers of your native land. And I believe that this people love these teachers because of the kindliness they have shown in the training of your children, and I believe that our people would say that my verdict is correct; they would make no dissent therefrom.

And so the time went on, and you, our brothers, invaded our realm, and we are not a bit jealous that you did, and we bring no words in the indictment to your harm. With forceful and strong hands you built railroads and tunnelled mountains and carried forward your splendid endeavors, and then you looked in on the realm of the household and what wonderful havoc you made there. My mother has a quilt which she made in her country home on a farm in western New York. She not only spun but wove the material that enters into that wonderful composition, and she said to me it was just a play-day from the spinning and the weaving for the family that they had to do. In those days the women picked their own geese and did their own dyeing, and here came the brotherhood, and

they took the wash-tub and carried that out of the house and built great laundries, and they set little nibbling fingers at work on that weaving and spinning, and did it by steel fingers, and it did not tire the women's fingers any more, and they are going on at such a rate that I predict that they will soon have the cook-stove out of the house, and I am not sorry. I do not think we shall see so many dinners with a broiled lady at the head of the feast. I look for the time when the great caterer of the town shall require nothing of me but to stand in the back hall and put my lips to the telephone and order my dinner and it will come through the pneumatic tube. We are going on at just that rate; the wash-tub and cook-stove are not the *Lares* and *Penates* of the home. You, having done this, are welcome to go on and do more and more of it. Because you have accomplished so much already is the reason that women's hands are free to take up this splendid work of teaching, and these grand endeavors of philanthropy.

I am here to-night just thinking these things over because this is a woman's symposium, trying to think why it is there are so many women teachers and doctors and philanthropists. They are trying to do what? Since you have invaded the home and taken away so many of the cares and inconveniences of the past, women have made up their minds that the whole world shall be homelike; that we will go out into social life and try to make that more homelike; that we will go out into the professions and try to make them more homelike, and in the wide sphere of government try to prove that you need two heads in council as beside the hearth. So, if you think that it is a wandering from the sphere of woman, remember that women, by becoming teachers, have made the school-room far more homelike, and the little ones happier than they were ever made before.

Now, since I am a temperance worker, and since my whole endeavor in life is to build firm and deep foundations for the protection of the homes of the country that I love so much, I ask you as those loyal to the home as I am, those who are striving in your avocation, as I am in mine (and I once belonged to your own honored guild), I ask you to stand by us in our effort and our endeavor to so work upon the brain and heart of childhood that the children of our nation shall go forth forearmed and forewarned against the greatest enemy of home, and that is the liquor traffic, and the drink traffic, in this "land of the free and home of the brave."

You take a watch, for instance (I might use as an illustration this little one that a Boston woman gave me): suppose it was not gold, but Britannia, or German silver, or something like that; you take the fine works that are inside this watch, full jewelled, and with the best Geneva workmanship, and put them into a German silver case or a China case, and the watch would go just as well, keep time perfectly just the same;

but, oh, my friends, there is another watch! God has wound it up, it goes on, tick, tick, tick, through all the years to seventy, and that watch, with the balance-wheel of judgment, the main-spring of reason, the full jewels of imagination and fancy, the dial-plate of character and pointers of reputation, that watch cannot go as well in a coarse case as in a fine one. There is interdependence between the soul and its environments; and what the body is and what its nutriment, determine what the soul shall be, and you are those who work upon the instrument of thought, you are those that care more for the brain than for any other organ.

I am here as a temperance worker to remind you that we are doing grand service in your cause, for we women of the temperance society are out in a splendid fight for a clear brain. That is what we have set our hand to do. We come here to-night to ask your co-operation as women in this battle of home-building and home-protection. Perhaps I shall find a better illustration in the flower. What the flower is depends on what is at the roots; on what was in the atmosphere, the sunshine, and in the constituents that were in the soil and the water, that were the nourishment of the blossom, and, as I was once a teacher of physiology, I remember so well this nervous system as it is depicted in the manikin and taught in the charts. With its fine tendrils it answers to the most delicate plant, and the brain is the blossom of man's being, the perpetual night-blooming cereus hidden away in the dark crypt of the skull. Its delicate petals are so wrought that the least intrusion of alcoholic drinks upon it is like the blight of frost upon the most delicate flower.

The brain is the skylight of the soul, it mirrors God's thought, but, oh, when it is cobwebbed with beer, when the impact of strong drink is put upon it, the brain can no more reflect the high and rational ideas that a man ought to entertain. Plutonian fires in the brain from alcoholic drinks render it impossible for the lighting up the Promethean fires so dear to the heart of the enthusiastic and earnest teacher; and so I come to you, kind friends, to speak about the fact that it is physiologically true that the impact of strong drink upon this delicate substance of the brain, the organ of thought, makes it physiologically impossible for a man to have as clear a perception of the fact that there is a God somewhere about, that there is a future somewhere ahead, that there are laws of God that interlace us everywhere, and we cannot escape them. That which is evolved must first be involuted. Behind everything there is a thought; behind every thought there is a thinker; behind every thinker there is the primal thinker, God, and the brain cannot take in those ideas if it is bewildered and impacted with the blur of strong drink. That is a physiological fact, and the men that take in the doctrine and the philosophy of that iconoclast, Robert Ingersoll, are men with a beer mug in one hand and a pipe in the other.

We have everything to gain by the triumph of this scientific temperance work, and it is so practical; it goes to make the school-houses where

the children can go from the mother's protection to the protection of the school-house. God hasten the day when with the guaranties of the State, and the majesty of law, and the dignity of science, the young people shall get a "thus saith nature," "thus saith reason," "thus saith physiology and hygiene," for the doctrine that it is best never to touch the products of the vineyard, the brewery, or the still.

It is to that proposition that one branch of our temperance work is dedicated, and in five States of our nation, already New York, Michigan, New Hampshire, Vermont, and Rhode Island, by the efforts of our society, the State has declared that a part of the curriculum in the public schools shall be that of hygiene with special reference to this curse of drink, with special reference to alcoholic stimulants upon the tissues of the body and the temper of the soul, and I am so glad I ever lived to see the day when the marching column of children from my native land are going to find, not only that the teacher shall point out to them the maelstrom of the Scandinavian coast, but shall point out to them the maelstrom of drunkenness and the currents that feed it and lead into it; when the teacher shall not only in a grammatical sense give them knowledge about the verb to be, to do, to suffer, but shall work that out into the every-day teaching that shall protect thoughtless and ignorant boyhood; when it shall come about that not only in the drawing lesson shall you give them the perspective and the free-hand drawing, but you shall show them by the diagrams that we are spreading all over the country, the enormous waste in the products of the country that comes because of drink. We have it all reduced to an object lesson.

We are learning something of your kindergarten system. If there is anything on this earth that I am enthusiastic about it is the kindergarten. I know that most of the children do not get it until they are trained in the high school. But I know that if we could take all of the little soldiers who are mustered into the army of temptation and sin, and have them taught with all the beautiful lessons of the kindergarten; this specific also of a clear brain, it would be the perfection of teaching for our country. We must remember that the body is the temple of the Holy Ghost. It has its ritual, it has its decalogue, and I must say to you that I believe that there is a woe pronounced by natural law, not by an abstract vengeance, upon the untutored ones that do not listen and are not taught these oracles of God. So I come before you to lay before you my plea to ask that you shall have a resolution in this most potent and highest congress of teachers of the nation, declaring that you will co-operate with these women, earnest and faithful, for the W. C. T. U is made up mostly of teachers that are striving to bring about this greatly needed reform. Now, may I say to you that I hope as you go hence, you ladies especially, you may think whether you cannot in your own locality co-operate with our society, as the superintendent of this special work in your own school, building over

against your Jerusalem, thinking about the little ones gathered about you. If each of us, standing in our lot and place, should do a little, how soon the "consummation devoutly to be wished" would have arrived upon the scene.

Friends, I believe that in this temperance work we are to have the alliance of the great forces of the nation. It is but a few weeks ago, since in Louisville, Ky., in a great opera house, by invitation of the management, every temperance woman had an opportunity to speak about these Sunday-school lessons for the eight million children who are under the care of the Sunday-school teachers, and by an unsought invitation from your management, for which I honor your president, who has stood so nobly by us, I am here to ask like co-operation from the teachers. Between the upper and nether millstones of these two bands of educators we can crush out the appetite in time. You have the greatest opportunity, because you have the first opportunity with the child's character.

I believe the time is coming when this shall be known as the great sister and mother country of Christendom. In my mind's eye I see two great statues as the emblems of the two great lines of thought the world has seen. The first is the Colossus at Rhodes; the second is Barthold's statue of the Goddess of Liberty. The first is the emblem of physical force; the second is the emblem of the subtle, spiritual force that lies back of the physical, the emblem of the new America. I have thought of that beautiful statue as it will soon stand on Bedloe's Island; I have thought of that regal and kindly and affluent presence as the type and symbol of American womanhood; I have thought of the emigrant ship as it shall come in. I have been at Castle Garden, and my heart has ached as I have seen them, the kind-faced Scandinavian so lonesome-like, and looked at the Celt with the home-ache in his honest heart, and seemed so sorry that the Emerald Isle was so far away. I have thought as they saw that gracious and benign presence that it would come into their hearts that America is a motherly country; that it is a home-like place; that into the activities of our time are coming those gracious, sweet, and tender influences which can only come when manhood and womanhood go forth side by side to make the nation a home, and I believe if we can gather the children of the German and the Celt and the Scandinavian into our public schools, and teach them that we are not fanatics when we want to give them the law of a clear brain according to science; teach them we are not fanatics when we wish to outlaw the liquor traffic, I believe they will come over to our way of thinking, and a little child shall lead them. Let sweet reasonableness, the reasonableness of science, of the latest experimentation, of the wisest thought and the fittest survival, let that be taught in the curriculum from ocean to ocean, and two or three generations hence, the German shall say that we are not fanatics, but we have just good square level heads on this question—

that is the solution of the problem. We all welcome the foreign population, except for the one thought that they are so far behind us on this temperance question. Why? for the simple reason that the impact of much thought has not been put in contact with the convolutions of their brain, as it has with ours, and the school where everybody goes, which is open to us all, is just the place where they can get that teaching.

I would that I were stronger to-night, I would that I had more vigor to speak to you about the subject that lies so near my heart, but in my home this morning my dear old mother said, "You are not fit to go up there to Madison, I wish you would not, you are undertaking too much." I said to mother, "Somehow I seem to hear the little feet that go patter, patter, pattering along to school, the little untrained ones, and I must speak a word to those whom I believe to be their very best friends; I want to bring before them the dear and sacred hope of the Woman's Christian Temperance Union."

Dear friends, I have one last thought—you know there is a statue, the first one that was ever erected in honor of a woman in America, which was erected in New Orleans, in MARGARET PLACE, only two or three weeks ago, perhaps less. When I was in New Orleans they told me about that noble woman, to whose memory that statue was erected. She was an Irish woman and a catholic,—a woman who never learned to read or write, a woman who never wore a silk gown or a kid glove, and yet a woman who amassed a splendid property; a woman who had God's very best gift—a great, royal, loving heart, and a woman who was everybody's friend, so that they called her the giver of bread, a woman who was especially interested in orphans, and founded orphan asylums. At the unveiling of her statue, a Roman Catholic Jesuit Priest and the Rev. Dr. Palmer, of the Presbyterian Church, officiated side by side, and it was a gala day for all the city, for no woman was ever so beloved. Now, friends, I have been fond of the intellectual type of women. One of the earliest of my ideals, and I have had many, was Margaret Fuller, and she has never ceased to be, and yet I tell you I am glad after all, I, who used to wonder that no woman ever had a statue in America when women were such patriots and so noble, I am glad that the first woman in my country who had a statue erected to her memory and to her fame was that woman; ignorant and untaught, but who was royally dowered with that aristocracy that everybody appreciates and everybody loves; the aristocracy of a great, loving motherly heart.

And I say to you, dear teachers, that only as we have that tender love for everybody are we fit to be the teachers of the little ones; only as we look into their eyes with the tenderest gentleness do we reach the true crown and the highest degree of a teacher's possibilities. So let us go forward, praying that, although we may never win great laurels for intellectual achievement, we may all be as much beloved as a woman I know in the

State of Illinois, a woman that never quoted to me a classic; a woman who never told me what a fine poem that was in the *Atlantic* or the *Century*; a woman who never broached, in my hearing, a scientific theory, and yet a woman so deeply taught in the language of the better life of the ties of brotherhood and love, in the mystic tie of the golden rule; a woman at whose feet I was glad to sit and learn of her; so loved that when she died there was nothing too good to do to show how much the people honored her, and the governor and the mayor and the high officials were glad to be those nearest her coffin, and little barefoot boys and ragged children came with some little bit of a flower, perhaps a dandelion which they had gathered out of the fence crooks, and put it on her coffin and said, "She was so good to us." God grant that with all the scintillating brain of womanhood in this age we may each and all take for our motto, "Womanliness first, afterwards what you will."

THE NEEDS OF SOUTHERN WOMEN.

BY MISS CLARA CONWAY.

There comes to me oftentimes the vision of a sunrise on Lake Geneva—the breaking of a perfect dawn on lake and mountain. The white morning mist drifted away in long, fleecy wreaths of vapor, till, iridescent with the morning light, they couched in soft masses upon the broad breast of the mountain. The great sun had sent his flaming torch-bearer to take the message of his coming, and the heavens were a scarlet canopy. The white mist flushed until it became a garland of roses wreathing the gray hills. The quiet lake was a burning mirror, taking on all the colors of the resplendent sky—liquid gold and silver, pink and gray, white, green, blue, a great flashing, brilliant kaleidoscope—this was the Lake of Geneva waked into morning light and beauty by the summer sun. The great chain of the Alps stood afar off, grim and gray, except that Mount Blanc, in “crystal silence,” lifted its snowy head high over all, pure and cold, in the morning light. In the north, great drifts of purple clouds massed themselves against a background of living green. In the east, a ball of fire came up, scattering the mists like frightened ghosts, and unrolling huge banners of light, until the sky was a living flame. As I looked, the up-coming sun paid no heed to the dark, grim mountains. There they stood, silent and awful, untouched by the swift light that leaped from cloud to cloud. But lo! as I look again, a long line of rosy light is thrown out across the sky toward the south till it touches the white head of Mount Blanc. There it rests, and the snowy summit is bathed in rosy splendor. The mountain monarch seemed to say, “Let there be light,” and there was great joy among the mountains. “What ailed thee? O, ye mountains, that ye skipped like rams and ye little hills like lambs?”

Shall life be *less* beautiful than one of its mornings? Shall we, who are women, be tempted “to lie down and rest, to quench aspiration, because of its trouble, and thought, because of its weariness?” Shall you, who are men, shut down the lid of hope upon a woman’s life and bid her sit with folded hands all the day idle? Shall we not, rather resolve, men and women alike, come what will, to disentangle truth from the meshes of falsehood and error. Shall we not make our way through the darkness of ignorance out into the full, clear sunlight of God’s truth, “for the truth

shall make us free." And if at first we do not see the way, "if the gloom be too thick, and the noise too loud, let it be our wisdom to wait till there be light enough for action;" then, when the fight is over, "and the mists float away in the west to die in the daylight of God," we shall know the full, strong meaning of the word, "Well done, good and faithful servant."

To-night, if there be one indifferent to the women's cry for more of the bread of life; who would shut his eyes to the growing light, or raise his voice in stern rebuke, him would I remind of the divine reproof: "Why trouble ye the woman? Let her alone. She has wrought a good work for me."

But no apology is needed for the word which I shall speak. The mists of error, falsehood, and ignorance are dissolving in the sunlight of truth, justice, and liberty, and here in this great, free, growing Northwest, no one questions a woman's right to do what to her seemeth best. I do not, therefore, ask if we may rightly claim for ourselves what one of the catechisms calls the three gifts of the Holy Ghost, "will, memory, and understanding." As if I should ask whence came these gifts, you would probably answer with one voice, "From God, or by the working of his law."

"God is law, say the wise; O! soul, and let us rejoice,
For if He thunder by law, the thunder is yet His voice;
Law is God, say some, no God at all says the fool,
For all we have power to see is a straight staff bent in a pool;
And the ear of man cannot hear, and the eye of man cannot see,
But if we could see and hear this vision—were it not He?"

If you admit mental faculties and capacities, which are the gift of God, let us begin by considering the question, why were they given? That they may be hid under a bushel? "Neither do *men* light a candle and put it under a bushel, but on a candlestick, and it giveth light unto all that are in the house." And shall she who is the light of the home, its centre, its royal mistress—shall *she* do less? Shall she crush her ambitions, silence her hopes, kill her aspirations, because she is a woman?

One of the strong arguments for immortality is the natural longing for life in the heart of man.

"Whatever crazy sorrow saith,
No life that breathes with human breath,
Has ever *truly* longed for death,
'Tis *more* life and *fuller* that we want."

"Man has capacities which ask an eternity for bloom and fruitage," and He who implanted in the heart this natural hunger meant that it should be answered. He, who gave to woman, hopes and aspirations, reaching from the centre to the circumference of human life, meant that these needs should be filled. How can this be done, is the next consideration. I answer, by a full, rounded, harmonious development of every

God-given power. By the highest cultivation, physically, mentally, and spiritually. By such careful, systematic, all-rounded training as will best fit her for eternal life. By such development as will make her spiritual happiness of the most supreme import. "We do not live by bread alone," and much as I value self-reliant womanhood, independence is not the first consideration. "There is more than one utility in relation to the welfare of mankind. True education does not increase our *material* happiness only. It does more than provide for outward wants; it does more than enable us to succeed in our worldly ambitions. To give a roof over the head is important, but to awake the heart, to feed the germs of sympathy, tenderness, and purity, to stir within the soul the sleeping enthusiasm for truth, are conditions of *eternal* life," and "is not the *life* more than meat, and the body than raiment?"

The desire to help woman towards the attainment of a high ideal should be founded upon reverence for the divine within her and a desire to help her see the divine idea, and to express it in her life. This should be the basis of all true education. Upon such strong and sure foundations will naturally arise the structure of an independent womanhood, firmly centred because God-centred.

"And the rains descended, and the floods came, and the winds blew and beat upon the house, and it fell not, for it was founded upon a rock."

Such education will place women forever beyond the reach of want, or a dishonoring marriage—marriage for a living or a home. I would have every woman so strengthened and disciplined, so fortified against want and dependence, that she would give her *hand* only where her *heart* had gone before. I would have her so brave and strong that the reproachful term "old maid" would have no terror for her. I would have her feel that there need be no *superfluous* woman in all the lands. I would have her know that though a *perfect* marriage is the most perfect of all earth's joys, married misery is the misery of hell itself. I know women who are walking silently to the tomb with breaking hearts, bearing burdens too great for any human life. This is the natural result of the ruling of corrupt and rotten customs, because, as has been said with great force, the whole system of society as regards the mode of establishing girls in life, is one plague of cowardice and imposture—cowardice, in not daring to let them live or love except as their neighbors choose; and imposture, in bringing for the purpose of our own pride, the full glow of the world's worst vanity upon a girl's eyes at the very time that the happiness of her future life depends upon her remaining undazzled.

I have said, let us give our women such training mentally, morally, and physically as will destroy the force of the word *superfluous* women. But *how* are we to do this? The *how* is not so readily spoken as the *wherefore*.

In the North many of the great endowed colleges are open to women. In the South scarcely one. Cornell and Michigan University offer the same

course of study to men and women students. Vassar, Wellesley, Smith are women's colleges, and offer rare opportunities for attaining the best. Harvard has a constantly widening annex, and even conservative Yale has a fine art school open to all. Besides these there are schools of art in all the great cities—industrial and scientific schools and business colleges—and as the result women are filling places of trust and profit in many departments of commercial industry. These things are only beginning to reach us in the South. The old-time school for girls with no endowment fund, and a superficial course of study is being built up by a strong and growing public sentiment, yet in the light of the newly dawning day we read the promise of better things. But the light of the present hour shows us the State University in which a boy may find the best; while the sister of that boy, even though she be his superior mentally, having the same or higher ambitions, aspirations, and hopes, must go to a far-off college for a full education, or she must be content with the superficial course of the town academy or fashionable boarding-school. But she can get married! you may answer. Can she? How do you know? Let us suppose, however, that she can and does marry, and let us read her history a few years later. We find her standing alone one day in a world, for whose fierce and bitter contest she is not armed; alone, save for the little ones whose helplessness is their best appeal. The mother's instinct is too strong to let her die, and rising with the strength born of a woman's love, she chokes down the rising sob, wipes the tears from her eyes, and begins to look about for something to do, something by which to put bread into the hungry mouths of the children. She may sew, you think. Unless one is an artist with the needle, to live by it is a process of slow starvation. Then she can teach, you say. Let us see. Suppose she comes to me. I say in reply to her statement that she can teach little children. "Can you? Then you are worth *more* than your weight in gold." But let us see: What do you mean by "teach"? How would you begin? What is the philosophy of teaching? Name the powers of a child's mind in the order of their true development? She cannot. These things are a sealed book, but she is willing to learn. What would *you* say, business men, if one professing to be a mechanic should, without tools and without skill, seek work at your hands? These are parallel cases, in *one* sense, the lower and material; in the higher spiritual sense they are far removed as pole from pole, for the teacher deals with human souls, and I have no word of condemnation strong enough for the man or woman who undertakes to mould a human destiny, without knowledge of the material with which he works. The teacher's work is sacred, heaven-ordained.

But I am not yet done with the forlorn woman who has knocked at my door, and hoping still to help her, I ask: "Had you the advantages of university study?" "No," she answers sadly; "I hoped for as much, but in my girlhood the college doors were closed against me." I tell her I am

sorry, but I cannot help her. Were I a city board of education, or as county board of trustees, and were she a sister, cousin, or aunt, I might mercifully find her a place, but even in that case she hopelessly flounders on, the "blind leading the blind," the generous board of education, responsible to high heaven when both she and the little ones fall into the ditch. Remember this is the self-same girl whose aspirations were stifled in that by-gone time, but whose brother had the blessed privilege of a full course in the university of his native State. And yet with or without that course any place in the nation is within his reach, from the anvil to the pulpit, from the plow to the presidential chair, while the college doors are closed against the girl who would have entered if only to eat of the "crumbs which fall from the master's table."

O! Fathers of our land, is this a just discrimination in favor of your sons and against your daughters? Do you consider that the fair, sweet girl at your side to-night, may be this poor unhappy woman of the future? No father here, or elsewhere throughout this broad, free land, even though he count his income by the millions, can give an absolute guarantee to his daughter that in twenty years she shall not be poor and helpless, unless, indeed, he be wise enough to cultivate her best gift. Unfortunately we have educated our girls to believe that their very *helplessness* is their best appeal to the helpfulness of some man, who will one day become the protector and bread-winner. If any one present should answer me with the thought, "This is as it should be; God meant it so in the beginning." To him I say that I am not dealing with that phase of the question. What God meant in the beginning, I have no means of determining. Evil is in the world to-day and rampant. How it came and why, is a secret locked up in the bosom of God. The conditions are reversed, the times out of joint. Hundreds of women and children are without protectors, and what is worse, unable to protect themselves. Your argument would have *some* force—a *very little*—if every woman married happily, and could have a guarantee made in the court of heaven, signed, sealed, and delivered, that her husband should be strong, temperate, competent, and long-lived. But it has no force at all, while unmarried women are on every hand, while widows and orphaned children fill the air with their piteous wails and lamentations. The promise of a happy home and wifehood cannot be given. What father or mother then will dare lift up a presumptuous voice to say: "These things shall not come to me or mine." I know helpless women whose hopes were once as bright and fair as those of any within the sound of my voice to-night, women to whom the thought of self-dependence never came. In the face of these things, in the face of the glaring and terrible stories of desertion, cruelty, and murder that fill our papers, do you tell me that women should not be fitted for a life work as well as men?

There is a senseless, unfounded prejudice against the liberal education of woman, which finds its best expression in the term "strong-

mind," applied to any woman who thinks, reads, and reasons. It is said that such women are not fond of home, that they neglect its duties, and find their chief happiness elsewhere. I have never seen more beautiful homes than those of women in Syracuse, N. Y., who spend their Saturdays in the woods botanizing, and who have been so successful in their favorite study that they are quoted as authority by the botanists of America.

I have never seen a lovelier home than that of a Boston woman who had made a close, careful, and systematic study of Shakespeare for more than twenty years.

I have never breathed a sweeter air than that of a household on a Mississippi plantation, presided over by a gentle woman, full of all sweetness and grace, yet who gives part of each day to the study of political economy, for the comprehension and intelligent discussion of the vexed question of free trade and tariff reform. Home! Why, it is the sweetest word in the wide range of every true woman's vocabulary. I claim the highest education for woman, "that she may have the power to fill her home with inspirations, with all spiritual forces that will fit her for worthily sitting at the head of her household. Such training lends a glory to material things, and lifts up the commonplace to the plane of the spiritual. Every simple homely art becomes the symbol of a willingness to please and a desire to give our best to those whom we love and honor." The heart finds its best expression in little tendernesses like that of the woman in the gospel, of whom was said, "Whosoever the gospel shall be preached in all the world, this also which this woman has done, shall be told as a memorial of her."

This education is becoming the ambition of young American womanhood, but as yet the girls of the South must look away from home for the opportunities of a broad and deep culture. The blessings of university study are not within their easy reach. Many of them, because of their poverty, cannot go away from home. We need a university at our door, and we must have it. We are ready, the time is ripe, the demand is strong and pressing. Since the spirit of the age does not swing open the ponderous gates of Vanderbilt University, our girls must have their own colleges. Every consideration of right and justice demands it. Some time since, desiring to send pupils to some well-appointed college, for special study, to fit them for teaching, I looked about for an opportunity near by, and though they and I live almost in the shadow of Vanderbilt, it was necessary to send them to the far-off East. It cannot be otherwise until our universities open their doors to women, or until well-endowed colleges are established in our land.

The spirit of the higher education is abroad; our girls are beginning to hunger and thirst. Soon no one will dare shut the door of any college in a woman's face with his dogmatic, "Thus far and no farther."

"We, who believe not in a capricious idol of power, but in a just Father, who loves—we, who hold that there is nothing which is not in God—cannot doubt the end." It is a beautiful thought that our best desires are but pictures of the things God means to give us, and so it is that I see in the wish nearest my heart to-night, the bold outline of a university, which, to use Dr. Mayo's words, shall be furnished with everything needful, without a flaw of sham education, from lofty turret to foundation stone, so well endowed, that for \$200 a year a thousand students will throng its corridors, and no girl be kept out because of her poverty.

The great acquired and inherited fortunes will do this work in a way to "blazon them with the gold of honor and brighten with tears of gratitude." And whenever, throughout this land, such a work is needed, do it, men and women of the North and South. I use the words North and South in a geographical sense only. They have no other meaning to us now. We are all simply Americans; the North is mine equally with the South; the South is yours equally with the North. There was a family row in the past, but it is settled now, and the boy in gray has come home to spend his days, the impulsive, hot-headed, large-hearted boy, youngest and well-beloved son of a fond mother, who floundered about in his little states-right boat till it went to pieces in the breakers. He returned as if awakened from a troubled dream, the blue sky and bright sunlight were above him, and the twittering birds in the trees about him. Putting his arms around his mother's neck, he said: "I will be a good boy, mother." Smoothing his disordered hair with her fair, soft hand, and wiping the tears from his eyes, she pressed upon his lips the kiss of peace and reconciliation. He has kept his word, and to-day there is no more loving or more loyal son in all the land than the boy in gray, way down South in Dixie.

Men of America, whether great or small, you are first among the nations. Setting foot upon our soil, for the first time in months, after a visit to another land, your manly courtesy, your tender, whole-souled reverence, made me feel that to be an American woman, was to wear the crown of queenhood in my own right. The courtly grace of the Frenchman, the profound gravity of the German, the wide culture of the Englishman, I remember with pleasure and gratitude, but the honest, whole-heartedness of the American gentleman, his broad, liberal thought, his nobility of soul, are a glory to the nation and an honor to all manhood. In the name of that nobility and for the sake of the woman whom you love, give the strength of your manhood to the upbuilding of such institutions for your daughters as will lend an added glory to our land. Some years ago, in conversation with one of our Tennessee University men, I said these words: "If I were eighteen years old to-morrow, I would knock at the door of the Tennessee University saying, 'Gentlemen, may I come in?'" He answered: "If I were there I would say in reply, 'Come in Miss Clara, have a chair and make yourself perfectly at home.'" He is not

here in the flesh to-night, but others are, as large of soul and wide of vision. Make the spirit of his words your own, by removing every barrier that lies in the path of progress, by lending a strong, helping hand to the sister woman who knocks at the gate, by saying to her with the nobility and grace worthy of your American manhood: "O! woman, great is thy faith; be it unto thee, even as thou' wilt."

EDUCATION OF THE INDIAN.

GENERAL S. C. ARMSTRONG, of Hampton, Virginia, was introduced and spoke as follows :

For over a hundred years the Indian question has been a concern of this Nation. It has recognized its duties to these people. The result of it must be regarded as disappointing. Government can build bridges and railroads and custom-houses, but it cannot make men; it amounts to what has been fitly described as a century of dishonor. During the same time, the Christian philanthropy of this country has recognized the claims of the Indian in a noble, faithful, but comparatively quiet work during the century, the result of which has been far from appreciated. The Cherokees and other tribes of the Indian Territory and a portion of the Sioux and other of the Northern and Northwesterly tribes have been labored with most successfully. It is no time to detail these things now, but I wish to refer to the fact that this century has not been one of dishonor so far as the Christian education of the Indian has been concerned. The criticism on it has been that it has been limited, but its success has been assured. There are bright spots over all this Indian country to make proof of that, one of the brightest of which will be represented by Mr. Riggs, who will succeed me on this platform.

Wherever I go I find this question, Does it pay? To-day the majority of intelligent people of this country do not know whether it is worth while, and the great point that seems to be made is this, can the Indian be civilized, or, more properly, does the Indian stay civilized? What becomes of him when he is educated and returns to his own country? That question has only been answered effectually by workers across the Mississippi; the reports that come in the Missionary magazines few have read, and I have come to you, representing the Eastern work particularly, Carlisle as well as Hampton, to say that we bring nothing new, but simply repeat and affirm what has been proved by better men than we are in these past generations. We say this: that there is no difficulty in educating Indians. My own personal experience has covered only six years, but in that time it has been quite thorough. We have selected Indians from eight or ten different reservations, chiefly Sioux, brought them from the wild Northwest and the Southwest, thrown them into civilizing surroundings for about three years, giving about half the time to two studies, viz: the English language and industrial work, chiefly teaching them the trades, some attention being given to agriculture, but especially to the mechanic arts; giving the girls instruction in the art of making and sewing garments and cooking and household work, and teaching the young men eleven different trades, the most important of which is carpentering and blacksmithing and wheelwrighting and harnessmaking, work in leather and wood, which is the most important at their homes. As the result of this work we have sent back already one hundred who have had a three years' course or near that. Thirty returned so recently that it is not fair to claim much for them, though they are all in a hopeful way and at work, but some seventy returned over a year ago, commencing in 1881 and over a year and a half after that. There is an opportunity to speak fairly of the tendency of the Indian when he is educated and returns to the wild life on the reservations. To take an Indian or any other wild man from wild life, anybody but a degraded white man, anybody who has been in the midst of life and rejected it, those we do not claim to do much with, but for those who never knew the light, those who never fell because they had no place to fall from, there is great hope for them, and the work for these races, the Indian and Negro, is the most stimulating and hopeful of any on this continent, for the reason that those to whom light is first offered receive it with an earnestness that you, the teachers of the white race that live in the light, know little about. These seventy Indians who are a fair test of the work that has been done at Hampton

and Carlisle represent the practical, sensible method of manual labor. Of these seventy, all but seven have done fairly well. Only seven have gone back to the blanket, which means they put on the war paint, attend the war dances and live a lazy, camp life; not one of them has become a horse-thief or a renegade. I believe that the result of Indian education for the last five years will show that not one of them will do what some of our public men say they will all do, that is, take to the war path and murder. They have some of them relapsed, perhaps ten per cent. Aside from those who have relapsed, eight of them have died, and the others are doing fairly well, principally supported by the occupations that are given to them within the Indian reservation where the Government has its carpenters and blacksmiths, etc. That is the hope of the returned Indian under the supervision of the Government and under the supervision of the Indian agents, who employ a number of white men. Those white men are doing what the Indians should do; there is no difficulty with the Indian, they make the shoes and harness and all the things that are to be made in a perfectly satisfactory way, and they learn to manufacture at the Indian schools a great variety of things purchased by the Government for the Indian service, and they do it well. The result of educating Indians is that we find that Indians are very much like other people. With the same chance in the school they will do as well as whites, particularly in the mechanic arts, but when they return the tendency is to do as young white men do when they go into the unrestrained life of the West. The Indian is the victim of circumstances, as the rest of us are. The education of the Indian is very easy when we have the proper appliances.

Twenty-five thousand of the thirty thousand Indians to be educated must be educated on their reservations. The point of taking them to the schools in the East is that we are able to devote more money to the work and have better fitted establishments of every kind. On the other hand, this work at the East, I think it is fair to say, was inspired by Captain Pratt, that great tamer of man, a man who never went to school perhaps over two years in his whole life, who conceived that a band of red-handed prisoners of war might be improved; and the result of that noble effort on his part, unsustained by Government, unsympathized with by all, is the grand movement at the present time in connection with Indian education. Hampton came in and continued that work when no one else would lend a hand. On that basis he organized Carlisle, and the work at those schools has been an object lesson. People representing the education and the wealth of the country have come there from all parts, and there has been an object lesson in Indian civilization given to our people that has been a great thing for the cause. The work West and the work East has its special significance. That in the East has had the effect of building up that public sentiment which is at the bottom of any political movement or social movement in any civilized country. When they go back what happens to them, do they fall? I have given you the facts; why should it be so? simply this, if you can only give the returned Indian occupation, he will work. We have sent them right back there among those old tents and tepees, and those Indian boys went at once to the chief and said, "Let us have a house by ourselves." He promised to do it, and they got a cook and lived by themselves, out of the old camp life, and they were appointed to their duties of carpenter, blacksmith, or this or that, and they went to work. The gospel of hard work enters into this question very largely. Wherever they had plenty to do, wherever they had proper management on the part of the agents, they have not gone back to their old ways. Every effort that is put forth is a thing to be thankful for. The fault of the Indian policy is cheapness, cheap beef, cheap everything; that is the weak point in the Indian work. The sixty Indian agents are getting about \$1200 a year. How are they to live on this \$1200, which is only about twice the pay of a common laborer; how are they to make up this amount? They are almost forced to steal. The Indian agent is the only white man the Indian knows; he calls him father; he stands to the Indian as the embodiment of civilization; let him be fine and high and the Indian will move on. To one who has visited the agencies the difference in the Indians is the difference in the condition of the agents. It is a question of money to some extent, but the Indian question, like all questions involving the progress of humanity, is a question of men. I have been at nearly all the Indian agencies in the country, and I came away from them all impressed with that one idea. Let the Indian agents be men, and this question will be settled. Whether it is dividing up the lands, or keeping out whiskey, or the matter of education, or giving them work, or this or that, the man there stands for everything, and where there is a good man the work is progressing. These people have got to be led and influenced. I dwell on this as that which, in my experience, is the most discouraging point, that our work at Hampton is one-half, and the easiest half, of the work for

the Indian. Is it possible to get good men in? We try to select good men, and by every influence get good men there; and rather than have them leave we help them. When the Roman Catholic, McLaughlin, was about to leave last winter in order to get a better salary, a protestant lady in Boston gave \$400 to be added to his salary that he might be retained, and she never made better use of her money.

A wave of progress is moving across the continent at the rate of twenty miles a year. Unless vigorous action is taken the Indian will be wiped out. While this is true, and the Indian seems to be giving way on the one hand, there is the singular fact that these two hundred thousand Indians are keeping at bay our whole fifty millions of Anglo-Saxons, demanding that we shall feed them or they will fight. That anomaly exists, that rather than fight them we will feed them, and feeding them in this way is worse than flogging them. The old slaveholder was a gentle, tender master compared with the would-be politician who would vote food to put into their stomachs that cost them no sacrifice whatever. We have made by this feeding process manhood impossible, and that is the great crime we have committed against them.

What is the remedy for all this? We wish good men to take hold of this; that is about the upshot of the question. The trouble is not in the Indian or his surroundings so much as in legislation at our National Capitol; there is the difficulty; in our public men, most of them who mean well, but few of them are posted, and many of them are ignorant and indifferent. The indifference of Congress is the curse of the Indian. For the last two or three sessions of Congress there has been a great improvement; there has been a wonderful improvement in the ideas of our educators on the subject of the education of the Indians. When we look back at the way things were a few years ago there is reason to thank God and take courage. Washington is where the thing is to be done, and not on the plains. We must go back of the legislators; there is somebody to blame nearer home than that; it is you; you represent the people; it is the public sentiment which underlies every question in every civilized nation, and if the public sentiment were right, there would be no difficulty in Washington. The trouble is with the people; they do not care about the thing; it is the indifference of the people that makes the indifference and ignorance of Congress; that works this great negative wrong to the Indian, and keeps the doors of manhood and womanhood closed to them; but I think there is hope. About three centuries ago there came curiously in contact three races, the Negro, the Anglo-Saxon, and the Indian. On the banks of the James River, a few miles from the town of Hampton, that germ of English life, with others planted along our coast, has expanded into a population of over fifty million, the destiny of whom it is to become the teachers of the race, and you have a big job on hand. We can hardly ask your attention from that to the comparatively small concerns of the red and the black races, but it is interesting to note how the five hundred thousand who were brought from the African coasts in the slave ships and landed on the shores of America have increased to six millions, and are multiplying faster than any other race on earth. Those people brought here in slavery while under the lash learned our language, acquired our industrial habits, and embraced the Christian faith. All these three were equally imperfect, but all were tremendous forward movements in the hand of God, who overrules the wrath of man and makes it praise Him. There was no grander move, morally, in the history of man than that of American slavery, paralleled only by that of the Children of Israel, and for the same motive and in the same direction. We have not yet learned to look at that thing rightly. When we get cooler and calmer we will see it. Experience has given me these views. The Indian, on the other hand, has neither our language nor our labor habits, nor our industry, nor our religion. The Rappahoes and the Sioux, tens of thousands, are just as far from our religion as the people of China. It is one of the startling things in American life that there were probably three hundred thousand of these people at the time our forefathers landed, and to-day about two hundred and sixty-two thousand. Dying out, you may say. Yes, the pure blood Indians are either holding their own or decreasing, but the half-bloods are increasing. The Indian is here to stay, but not the full blood Indian. It will finally resolve itself into a curious question of Indians who are not Indians, but who have the legal rights of Indians. They are a permanent factor whose form may be changed, but who will not be destroyed. With the negro, by the great factors of the surrounding influences of civilization, citizenship, and education, a result will be produced that will be a credit to our country; a grand thing for that race and the ultimate redemption of Africa, which was, under God, the moral objective of American slavery, I believe. The Indian wants just the same; he wants that surrounding influence of civilization, which is the first condition of progress that the negro has; he has it not. The red race seems to yield or die,

where the black race holds its own and even increases; still it must come to this, and is coming: The Indian race, by means of the railroad and trade, is coming into contact with civilization, and if it kills him he must meet it; he has got to have that, for there is no force equal to that of the railroad and of trade and business. It is ten times to the negro what our schools are. We think we are the educators; nonsense, we are only doing only a little part of it. The educators of this country who are professionally so are only part of the educating force. Commerce and trade is an enormous educator, if you look at it rightly, and that is coming to the Indian, and, if it kills him, never mind; he has got to have it, and he must be prepared to meet it; that is what makes the crisis. In order to meet it, he wants these other two things, citizenship and education; that is what the negro had. It gives every person who comes in your country from abroad the benefit of our national digestion. We must bring to operate upon the Indian, as we do on all the races, this assimilative force that we have got, and if it is strong enough it will settle all questions of our future, and if not we will break down with political dyspepsia. I think we can stand the Indian as we do the rest. The question is whether he can stand us. We must give them citizenship; we must make them voters, and we must educate them.

THE PRESIDENT: General Eaton is here at this moment and I have asked him to speak because he is obliged to leave.

GENERAL EATON: I cannot tell you how much I am delighted that you have had this opportunity of hearing General Armstrong. They have in Ireland what they call a travelling dairy, taken about the country by a good Bishop to teach the dairymaids how to make butter. General Armstrong is the travelling dairy of this Indian question. He teaches the good people of the North and the East on this question. I am delighted that you have had the opportunity to listen to him, and that you have listened with such interest and attention. Now I beg you, it may not prove to be merely that interest and attention that you give to a novel, to a fine and pleasant fiction, for this is a terrible fact, and I recall this, that, when I included in the national report of education the subject of Indian education, there were objections to my including it by teachers of the nation. "What had the national report on education to do with the education of the Indian?" But we have included the statement year after year. Now the teachers of the country are ready to have the subject on the program of their convention, and they are delighted and intensely interested by these addresses. But you have something to do. General Armstrong has pointed out to you that the difficulty is not with the Indian. It is your work. With this work you have a direct responsibility, and you can act, every one of you in your place, and that is what I want to call your attention to. You have your relation as citizens; you have your relation as teachers; you hold positions of influence; you have your relations to members of Congress, every one of you, whether man or woman, and you are so far responsible as you hold that relation for the action of the members of Congress. See to it then and do something. Do not think because you are in the distance, and only one, that you can be excused from action. You cannot be excused, and you will by and by produce results. You have produced results this very year. I remember very well when once called upon in the presence of teachers to say a word about education in the Territories. I alluded to the subject of education in Alaska, and when I sat down, a good friend of mine said, "You have made a fool of yourself in alluding to a question so far out of the way with this body of teachers; what have they to do with education in Alaska?" My dear friends, I never had such a conception of a teacher as that. I believe that the teacher of America has a relation to every child in America and I try to act on that principle. I remember once when the presiding officer half pushed me off the stage when I was trying to enforce the idea of negro aid, and friends came down and said, "Why did you not resist that apparent insult?" No, my friends, we are not yet in the millennium, but we are going towards it mighty fast. I say you have done something this very year, and I want to tell you how it works. That subject of Alaska is grand. There is something accomplished on that subject; and the teachers that would not at first consider themselves responsible or interested in the subject have come to the rescue and the petitions they have sent up from their localities north, east, west, and south, Congress has acted upon, and there is a government in Alaska, and there have been appropriated twenty-five thousand dollars for general education, and fifteen thousand dollars for industrial schools in Alaska. Now with reference to this popula-

tion; some of these problems that General Armstrong has suggested need not exist unless you force them upon this people, and you should be intelligent about it and see to it that the Government never complicates the administration of public affairs in Alaska with some of the elements of the Indian problem that have arisen elsewhere. There are about twenty thousand of those people there. Let us give them a fair chance. It is one of the grandest opportunities for a great educational experiment ever offered to the American people. It is on a large scale and it is off by itself. It is not complicated as the question of negro education was in the South. Let us study it. Let us go at it philosophically; let us bring to the problem the experience of other nations in educating degraded populations; let us take the child as he is and move him along the road of life, giving him a knowledge how to use his hand and his brain, and every faculty he has, for his own good, and the good of his neighbor, and the honor of God. It is in the power of education to do it, and if it fails, you, Ladies and Gentlemen, I charge you, in a measure, will be responsible for it. Do not go away delighted with this speech of General Armstrong merely, or with what you saw in the exhibition above, but go away to do something; go away to make your preacher feel that here are some of the damnable sins that he should preach about, and which should be corrected under your influence, and make your member of Congress feel that here are some of the great problems of statesmanship that are entitled to his attention and to his honest and faithful action, and we shall have it if you are effective in your endeavors. These problems are all connected. This points out to you that you have a national relation; it points out to you how you may help General Armstrong and others laboring with him in these great problems; and these state superintendents and city superintendents and teachers of the South that come up with a measure of self-sacrifice that you, who live in Iowa and Minnesota and these rich and advanced localities in respect to education, have no knowledge of. You see where your efforts may help them, and although you cannot give them dollars; although you cannot give them teachers that can work for nothing, you can say to your member of Congress, here is a national obligation, these people want education, they are endeavoring to get it for themselves; they are confiscating their property in some instances now to get universal education. It is an obligation of the general Government, and it should be met by every representative in Congress. Let the teachers of the country see to this, and light will break. The bill that is now lodged in the House of Representatives, or some other equally good bill should be passed, and there will be glory in the land.

THE PRESIDENT: *Ladies and Gentlemen:* We have a beautiful object lesson in our Exposition of the Indian work in its physical form. We have also an object lesson to present to you in the beautiful song which the Indian boys and girls from the Santee Normal training school will sing in their own Dakota language. We are very glad to welcome to-day a number of teachers and quite a number of pupils of the Santee Normal training school of Nebraska. The Rev. Dr. Riggs, of sainted memory, began the work in the Indian country many years ago, under a great sacrifice and with great toil, and almost life itself was in danger. He has gone to his rest, but has left his sons to carry on the great work. We see some of the fruits of the seed which he planted so many years ago.

The Indian pupils then sang "America" in the Dakota language and a hymn in English.

MR. A. L. RIGGS, principal of the Santee Normal training school of Nebraska, was then introduced and spoke as follows:

My Friends. I take it that the question of the possibility of educating Indians is settled; that no more discussion is needed on that point, and I believe to-day that the teachers of this country are taking up the question of Indian education as a problem of their future work, and, with that conviction, I would contribute something if pos-

sible to the clearing up of that problem, and speak for a few moments of certain difficulties that lie in the way of Indian education which must be met, or else our efforts will be more or less failures. I know that I might choose something more pleasant and perhaps more entertaining, but, as workers, as those intent upon accomplishing a certain result, I believe that you will welcome any thing that can be contributed by one who has made this subject a life-long study. There are four present difficulties. The first is in the fact that the Indian is a wild man. The second lies in the fact that he has little individual or independent personality. The third is in his religion. The fourth is in his language. I will speak briefly, as time may give me chance, upon some of these points.

In saying that the Indian is of a wild nature I do not mean that he is naturally savage or vicious. White men can be and are more savage and more vicious than any Indian. I do not mean either that he needs to be tamed. The Indian is the most gentle of the human race, but he has an undisciplined character. He lacks habit: habits of thought, habits of body and of work. He cannot think of any thing with the idea of having it continued in like manner and with regularity. The Indian woman does not make two moccasins alike; and consequently we find right here one of the greatest difficulties and obstacles to carrying out any of the higher ideas of education. We have to begin back of where we ordinarily begin, because some things that we take for granted we find do not succeed, for the basis is not there. An Indian has very little idea of time. He lives in space, but his idea of time is deficient. One day, one year, is just as good as another, and although, in truth, he is the most honest man upon the continent, yet he is never known to repay a loan when he says he will. The Indian, as I said, has little independent personality; he is a member of a corporate body; he lives in that corporate life; that corporation may have no formal organization, or very little, and yet it is a power. It is the power, the unit, in Indian society, and not the individual. It is the family, the clan, the tribe, the people; but the man, never. And this is the important thing to be taken into consideration in any efforts for his civilization and his education. It is not only the generation of to-day that rules him, but all the generations of the past sit upon his shoulders. You may have before you a bright child and think that you have only to do with him, but you are not only trying to teach him but all his grandfathers, both living and dead. Other difficulties are found in his language and in his religion. By his religion he is bound into this life that has come to him from his forefathers. He is one of them in tradition, in practice, and however he might like to yield to the solicitations of his white brother, whom he recognizes as superior, and whose God he is willing to call the great God, yet he says that his God will not allow it. And so before you can bring him into a new life and into a new hope, you must give him a new religion and a new God.

Now there are certain practical conclusions that come, and one is that training must occupy a more important place in Indian education than it may needs occupy in white education. Teaching is not enough. Teaching is not the principal thing, but so to realize that teaching, to materialize it, if necessary, as to give it body, form, and reality to him, and through that process to bring him into habits of thought, into habits of work. You train his eye, you train his hand, you train his whole bodily powers, and you can train him to think. Training is the great thing. Not that in the pursuit of training we should do as our Government has erroneously attempted to do, put intellectual instruction and training aside, but that we should make them co-ordinate. They live by the power that they gain from each other. Another thing is that you must educate the whole Indian people at once. It will not do to pluck a few twigs from the stalk and plant them in a better place for their better growing, while the old stalk is continually sending out new shoots and perpetuating the ignorance and degradation of the Indian race. We must raise no more ignorant Indians. We must commence to-day to educate the whole people at once, and, as a corollary and conclusion to that, it is necessary to do that in the Indian country. You cannot carry them away to another land, these many Indian children, and though they are ready for education, they cannot be educated anywhere else except on their own lands.

There is no question of the character of the schools that have been raised in the East, they are prominently before the public eye. General Armstrong has well stated the relation of the Eastern and Western schools, and indeed there should be no possible disagreement between us, as representatives of the same Missionary Association, the American Missionary Association, working East and West, North and South. Just here let me say, in regard to that work of educating upon the ground, that it is often said and often thought that we are losing power by so doing, because the scholars are so dragged down by the Indian society around them. It is true, but everything that

you lose in the scholar is taken up in the community, and ultimately the gain is greater. The community is advancing in sympathy with the children whom they have sent from their own families, and whom they receive again into homes that are already beautified and prepared for their civilized offspring. Two of these girls that stood before you to-day have heathen and pagan parents, awaiting them in northern Dakota, who wear the blanket, who, while bound in a measure to the pagan belief, are yet following their daughters with affection and solicitude and pride. The father is now building them a new house into which they shall enter.

It seems to me, my friends, that we are now at a place where we can demand of the general Government that they take up this work thoroughly and efficiently, and that they proceed at once to organize such a system of public instruction upon the Indian ground as shall take up this question and settle it in these present years. It is true that this leaven of education will spread until it has ultimately permeated the whole mass. The white population, as General Armstrong has said, is pressing in on every side, and there can be no delay—the time is now. The Indian sentiment is ripe, is anxious, and, if you do not do this work to-day, we shall never leave it to be done by posterity. We must look to the Government that they put this work into efficient and well organized shape. They must be divorced entirely from the present Indian agency system. Thirty miles from where I live, at Yankton agency, in the last four years there has been a change of agents once in six months, and every time the agent was changed the school-master was changed, and the Government school was torn up from top to foundation. And that is just why it is that there can be no efficient, fruitful work under Government until this whole school business is taken out of the control or any relation whatever to the Indian agencies. Another thing is *supervision*. Some seven years ago I began to agitate the supervision of Indian schools, and, as a result, during the past two years we have had the appointment, in some respects, of a most excellent man, Major Hayworth, whom I know thoroughly, with whom I have camped many a night on the prairie. He is the superintendent of Indian schools, but he has a whole continent to care for. What can he do? He has only one clerk in his department at Washington. What can he and his one clerk do? How would General Sheridan like going out with a single aid and no battalions? We might do that here in our departments. There is not the expenditure for Indian schools that you find in a single county in Wisconsin or Ohio. It is an everlasting shame to this country; it is more than that, it is a shame to the teachers of this country, that up to this time they have allowed any such thing to happen. And now, my friends, I look to you upon this day and in the coming years that you will awaken to your responsibility and your opportunity, and you will take this question in hand, and you will see to it that our national government puts into order and efficiently carries on such a work of education, so thoroughly systematized, so thoroughly supervised that there shall be school-houses dotted all over the Indian country before the meeting of a second gathering like this.

MR. PRATT, of the Santee Agency, offered the following resolution:

Resolved, That the teachers of the National Educational Association in convention assembled, recognizing the great importance of Indian education and citizenship, not only to the Indian himself, but to the honor of the country, do earnestly hope and pray that Congress shall give an early and hearty passage to the Dawes bill or some similar bill looking to the elevation and advancement of a race of people whose interests the American people have too long been indifferent or actually hostile to.

Referred to the committee on resolutions.

DR. WHITE, of Ohio: I want to take just two moments of this very precious time to say a word on this question. The education of the Indian is a question that very early received my attention, and among my early pupils were Indians, and I wish here to bear testimony, and have this audience understand, that forty years ago a noble man in the State of Ohio, moved with the feeling that the Indian, to be improved, must be taken away from the Indian country, took a few of them, and educated them and sent them back,—raised money and gave money and opened an academy, in which I was a student preparing for college, for the education of Indian youth from the Chipewya and Ojibway tribes, and for five years he had from sixteen to twenty-five Indian youth of both sexes in that school. And that noble man, to-day eighty-five years of age, if my memory serves me, is in poverty, through the sacrifices he made for the edu-

cation of the Indian, using what money he could get, and his entire fortune that he had accumulated as a teacher was sunk in that attempt. Now, in that work we found that it was not the best course to take, to take these Indians away from their own country and educate them and send them back, unless we could give them industrial training, of which we knew nothing. We were simply treating them as ordinary scholars. They went back. They could do nothing, and their education was lost. But on one line we worked efficiently, and that was to get the sons and daughters of the chief men of the tribe, and educate at the head of the tribe, for they would go back and change the tribe, and that was the work he did. I am glad that after thirty-five years the American people are waking up to the duty that that good man, now in his years and in his poverty, saw what must be done for this country. That man's name I give to put on the record. I refer to the Rev. James Bissell, President of the Twinsburg Institute in the old western reserve, which was consecrated early to the rights of man.

MR. GARVEY: Let me say that it was my privilege over a year ago to stand by the bedside of the father of Mr. Riggs and to hear him, thrilled by this music, say, "I thank God that it has been my privilege to consecrate my life to the advancement of the human race."

The audience then united with the Indians in singing "Old Hundred."

METHOD IN TEACHING.

BY JOHN W. DICKINSON.

Teaching is defined, by some, to be the act of presenting objects of knowledge to the learner's mind. This definition implies that it is the teacher's duty simply to establish the conditions necessary to learning, and to that growth of the mind which the act of learning may produce. Method in teaching has reference to a way in which the act is to be performed.

As there are different ways of performing the act, there are different methods of teaching, and the methods will receive different names according to the peculiar marks by which they may be distinguished from one another. If the objects of knowledge are themselves presented, the objective method is employed.

By oral objective method is meant that which adds to the purely objective method the use of such words as are necessary to direct the learner's mind in thinking of the objects presented.

The written method substitutes language for things. This method is used by those who suppose that previously acquired knowledge or an active imagination will render the presence of objects of study unnecessary.

The two methods just described direct our attention to the effects produced by the presence or absence of objects of thought. There are methods that may be distinguished by the manner of thinking which they occasion. One of these is called the analytic method, which consists in presenting first the whole to be known, whether it be an object or subject. Secondly, the parts in their order and relations and lastly the reconstructed whole. Another is the synthetic method—the reverse of the one just described. It may be detected by observing the order of proceeding as the teacher teaches, or as the pupil recites the lesson. The synthetic method of teaching reading will be known by observing that the teacher presents first letters or elementary sounds, then these combined into syllables, the syllables into words, and the words into propositions.

The synthetic method of teaching things, presents first qualities or parts, and supposes that with them the learner can construct the wholes, of which they are the elements. All teaching and recitation, and all mental processes, that begin with the use of definitions, without having derived them from a previous analysis, employ the synthetic method. Thus

we see that method in teaching may be a way in which the things to be known are brought before the learner's mind, or a way of leading the mind to think of them when presented. The true method will be that one which will best accomplish the purposes for which the act of teaching is exercised. These purposes are to direct the pupil to the acquisition of knowledge; to the true way of thinking, and to a right development of the whole nature. The conditions of knowledge are the presence to the mind of proper objects, a true method of thinking, and the ability and inclination to use the method. The first mental products of which the mind is conscious are ideas. These are not innate as some claim them to be, for they never exist until they are produced by the activity of a mental power. The powers that produce ideas are innate, and are ready to act whenever appropriate objects are presented to them. Ideas are the elements of thoughts and of knowledge. Thoughts are the products of acts of comparison of ideas, and knowledge is the consciousness of their agreement or disagreement. From the relation of dependence that knowledge holds to ideas, and that ideas hold to the presence of their objects, we learn that the objective method of teaching supplies one necessary condition for the acquisition of knowledge. Only so far as this fundamental truth is observed in teaching will the pupil know what his words describe. The use of books and lectures as original sources of knowledge is one of the most pernicious fallacies of modern teaching. They present the names of things and the descriptions of their modes of existence, but it is not in them to become the things themselves. John Milton says "that language is the storehouse of the past, but if it is only a verbal possession, it is like a storehouse, the inlets to which have been closed up." "Hence though a man know all the tongues that Babel cleft the world into, yet, if he have not studied the solid things in them, he is not learned." "Because the children are taught at school to appear to know, and to speak as if their knowledge was real, when they are conscious that it is not, they are trained in the habit of untruth." "The result is, that truth is absent from *life*, from *society*, and that there is no profession in which is to be found simple truth, and virtue, and the highest aim."

It is impossible for a teacher imbued with a knowledge of the conditions of learning to simply direct his pupils to *books*, or to *formal lectures*, and require nothing more of them than to *reproduce* the *language* they have committed to their memories.

Another condition of knowledge is a right method of thinking. A complete knowledge of any object of thought includes a knowledge of it as a whole, of the relations which the parts bear to one another, and to the whole, and thirdly of the parts themselves.

These three elements of complete knowledge can never be obtained except the whole be considered first. The relations of parts cannot be ob-

served unless the whole is present, and parts never become parts to a mind that is ignorant of their relations in a whole. In the pursuit of elementary knowledge the individual whole is the one to be analyzed. In teaching natural objects, an individual *plant*, or *mineral*, or *animal* should be brought at once as a *whole* before the mind. The *mental process* that follows the observation of the thing as a whole is that of *analysis*.

In teaching language the entire word or the entire proposition must be presented at first, if a name or a grammatical construction is to be the object of study. Beginning with the whole, the mind of the learner has placed before it the right occasions for the analysis that must precede every intelligent synthesis. There may be synthetic teaching, but as a method of study it requires an impossible process. For parts are never parts to a mind that has not perceived the whole; nor is it possible to think of them as combined into a whole until the relations they bear to one another have been observed.

The *synthetic method* of teaching is faulty in this, it leads the learner blindly along from parts to whole, by making all combinations for him, keeping him in suspense until the process is *completed*, and the whole is *constructed*. The teacher who solves problems and discovers truth for his pupils, uses the synthetic method, and as a result he presents no occasions for the cultivation of active power, nor for the acquisition of that method of study which gives to them the ability to help themselves.

Every complete mental process of thinking of an individual object consists of first perceiving a whole, secondly, of an analysis for a knowledge of related parts, and thirdly, of a synthesis by which the parts can be joined again in the whole. In scientific study the class whole is the object of analysis. This whole is presented by a definition, with which all scientific processes should commence. Defining is a synthetic act, but the scientific student should be prepared for it by having passed over a thoroughly elementary course in which individual objects have been analyzed for a knowledge of their resemblances and differences. In an elementary course of study, definitions are out of place, for the young pupil has not yet come into possession of those general notions which definitions express. The elementary student begins his study by the analysis of individual objects. The scientific student begins by analyzing a general truth. Elementary knowledge prepares the mind for scientific knowledge, and the latter is impossible to a mind that has never been conscious of the former. The right use of the analytic method of teaching requires a definite order of proceeding. In the analysis of an individual object, if it has parts, they should be taken in the order in which they are found. If it has qualities or attributes only, they should be taken in the order of their importance or in the order of their appearance to the mind. In the analysis of subjects, the parts should be taken in the order of their

logical dependence. If these rules are observed in elementary and scientific study the knowledge obtained will be arranged in the mind of the learner in an orderly manner, so that by the use of the laws of association he can hold it in his memory, and find in it occasions for that knowledge of relations which a confused order of thinking of unrelated parts is never able to discover. The pupil will learn a true method of thinking from a true method of teaching. He will after a time refer to his experience as a learner, and become conscious that his knowledge has been made real by the actual presence to his mind of its objects, and that it has been made valuable to him through the method by which it was obtained. It is quite necessary for all practicable purposes, that the knowledge acquired by study in school should be sufficient in quantity and reliable in its character. Elementary knowledge is the occasion of all scientific knowledge. If the *one* is wanting the *other* is impossible. If the one is *false*, the other will be *false also*. Besides, that pursuit of truth which fails of the end it seeks, will be likely to produce bad habits of thinking, and a willingness to accept that which appears to be for that which really is. From these things it appears that the analytic method of teaching supplies the second necessary condition for the acquisition of real and complete knowledge.

But the highest end that school exercises are adapted to produce is the *right training of the faculties*. This truth has been enunciated and believed from the most ancient times. Knowledge is useful, mental development is a good. The one is a means to an end, the other is an end in itself. The mind is developed by an exertion of its own energy. This is the great mental law. Subordinate to this it may be said that the mind acquires *facility* in *performing* those *acts* which it is accustomed to perform. These truths should have a controlling influence in determining what method of teaching shall be chosen. *Text-books* and *lectures* may *mean nothing* to the *learner's mind*. At the best, they require nothing but that the one to whom they are presented shall understand the ideas other minds have invented. In this act the *passive powers* only are called into exercise. No power of self-control is acquired. No strength for independent activity is produced.

Language has its place in teaching and learning. Its province is to call attention to things, and to save the pupil from groping after knowledge. All teaching finds its immediate end in directing the learner in his work. It becomes pernicious when it degenerates into the simple act of communicating information. That teacher is the most skilful who is able to excite the mind of his pupil to the most vigorous activity in the orderly study of things to be known. It must be remembered that every human mind must think for itself all the thoughts of which it will ever be conscious. It must produce for itself all the strength that will ever be added to its original power.

Every teacher of youth should bear in mind that famous and most rational advice given by Philip, of Macedon, to Aristotle, the chosen teacher of Alexander. This was the advice. Strive to make yourself useless. What did Philip mean by that strange saying? He meant do not confuse the mind of my boy by presenting to it words as the original sources of ideas. Do not by the use of text-books, or learned lectures, attempt to pour knowledge into his mind as water is poured from one vessel into another. Do not set him to combining parts or attributes into wholes which he has never observed or known. Finally, do not deprive the child of the inestimable privilege of using his own faculties in that free, full, vigorous manner, which after a few years of training, under your direction, will make him to be a strong and independent man.

I have spoken of the objective analytic method of teaching as the one best adapted to occasion learning and development. It is the *Philosophical Method*. It is the method to be used for *all forms* of knowledge and all kinds of development. The time must come when the teachers of the country will understand it, and by a skilful application of its principles be able to put their pupils well on their way towards a true education.

RELATION OF THE ART TO THE SCIENCE OF EDUCATION.

BY W. T. HARRIS, LL. D.

I ask your attention very briefly to the following remarks upon the subject assigned me, which is the relation of the art of education to the science of education. What I say must be in the way of a comprehensive summary. Each person here will agree with me that the human race has been constructing a spiritual ladder for the last six thousand years, and is climbing to the top of that ladder.

Each human being puts his experience into the fund of the whole, in order that those who come after him may not have to live over precisely the same experience that he has lived, and suffer the same amount of pain for that experience; but that each individual may, standing on the shoulders of all that have gone before him, rise higher. Education is the process of availing oneself of this ladder. This general definition of education will indicate to us the solution of this question, the relation of the art to the science of education.

Art has special relation to the training of the individual to do something. The art of education includes the process by which the individual shall be active in doing the work of educating. The science of education shall contain the consolidated experience of the race in regard to the best manner of educating men. It is evident from our point of view that the individual teacher must be benefited and helped in every way by knowing of the experience of his fellow teachers. The person who practises the art of teaching must reinforce his own experience with the consolidated results of all human experience—he must climb the ladder built for him, and, moreover, he must not sit down and rest on the higher round of this ladder. After he has learned the consolidated experience of the race with regard to this art of teaching, he must reach up boldly and build another round, or attempt to build it, and he must do his best to combine with his fellow-men and build a firm support.

Those two points, therefore, will be in the true teacher's mind always. to master the experience of the human race with regard to teaching, and to add something to it for the benefit of his fellow teachers, to pay them back with his own little contribution to the wisdom of the race. We all

of us believe in a religion which holds that the fundamental principle of this universe is expressed in the doctrines of grace and vicarious atonement; the doctrine of grace means that the whole shall give to each such an immense mass of benefit and good that, compared with it, the individual's contribution is as nothing. The individual's contribution, do the best he can, is as nothing compared with what the race will give him. Therefore, humanity acts toward the individual in the attitude and form of grace. Vicarious atonement means that each individual suffers some experience, receives some kind of knowledge, or finds out something through his own pain, and contributes this experience of his to the great fund of THE WISDOM OF THE RACE, and thereby renders it unnecessary for others to suffer the same pain in order to gain that experience. Human society, in its deepest principle, in its most fundamental law, is founded on these doctrines of vicariousness and grace as stated in these two central dogmas of our religion.

Now, to come to details, in what respect does the science of education come practically home to the one that practises the art? It comes home to him in three forms. The one who practises the art of teaching must have something to do with the forming of THE COURSE OF STUDY, the *what* the pupil shall learn. Every teacher, considering what the pupil shall learn, looks around and gets information from the experience of the race in regard to those subjects. The scientific investigation of the course of study collects the different experiences of the race in regard to education, and explains them one by the other, so that no teacher need say, "this has been and therefore it shall be now," nor, "the customs have been diverse, and one may choose whatever studies he pleases." But science compares one course of study with another and finds out the logical necessity for each, and then discovers what is adapted* to the present circumstances.

The next matter is discipline in the school. To the art of teaching, discipline is essential. The teacher wishes to educate the pupil as a school, and so he establishes such a discipline that one pupil may combine with another to produce an aggregate result, and not have the labor of each interfered with and destroyed by the meddlesomeness of all. That is the significance of discipline in the science of education, and that is the practical significance of it in the art of teaching.

The next point is the organization and management. How many pupils shall we have to a teacher? How shall matters be arranged in regard to length of sessions and recitations and hours of study, and such details? It includes also the architecture and furnishings of school buildings. The art of education, in trying to answer this particular problem, "What must I do here and now?" will look to the science of education and find the great torches of aggregate experience flaming aloft for his guidance. But the teacher must know how to get at the genuine science

and not mistake the mere shimmer of something that professes to be the science of education and is not. He therefore will look abroad over human history and note the outline of the history of pedagogy, the history of school management and discipline and course of study, and endeavor to discern the trend of historic progress. He will look, moreover, not only at those lights that shine up there, stars that have ascended into the sky not to fade away for all time, but he will look also at the new lights—the rush lights and the others, some of them electric lights—that are kindled in his own time. He will compare them photometrically with the celestial lights. How will he find a critical principle—a test for comparison? He will study especially all writings that relate to social science, for social science must include pedagogy as one of its provinces.

In the department of the science of education he will study especially the three methods, the analytical method, the synthetical method, and the method of investigation. The analytical method was beautifully described in the last paper. It takes a general survey and goes down into details, having the advantage that it keeps for the mind a clear survey as it goes down. While the analytic method is deficient in other respects, it gives clearness in respect to a general survey, and connects the new knowledge with that already in the mind. It fills the mind with the question marks and keeps it all aroused and active in this descent into details. It discovers the relation of this particular object before me to all this and to all other departments.

The synthetic method begins with the particular and proceeds to the discovery of its dependence on others, finding that "A" implies "B" and therefore A and B make up synthetically one unit. This method, too, has great value, but it is blind when it starts, and must borrow guidance from the analytical method. By itself it can only grope. It is liable to take up the most insignificant thing before it and commence its synthesis by adding it to the next most insignificant thing. Unless the mind has in it the analytical principle which starts from the whole and descends to the parts, it cannot guide its synthetic investigation. The synthetic method by itself will prove very wasteful, because it will not avail itself of what the race has found as the total net result. Six thousand years of climbing up the ladder of human experience has not left us entirely in the dark with regard to very much. No individual is going to rise in this time and build a whole ladder, although he may add a round to the top of the ladder that is built.

The method of investigation takes analysis and synthesis together, and actively works with them, uniting them, or weaving one in and through the other in such a way that it makes a higher method, the method of teaching the pupils how to get at the original experiences; how to vivify the discoveries of the race and how to make new ones for himself.

How to investigate things in the external world, this is the first lesson, and, as you and I know, it is the simplest part of education. But the getting hold also of the inner experiences of man, and the method of that procedure—this is not so simple. It cannot be done by objective lessons; not the lessons usually called objective, at least, but it must be done by those lessons in the analysis of human experience. The pupil must learn how to dive down into himself and discover, in his own experience, elements corresponding to what he learns out of books regarding his fellow-men.

He must find in himself the archetypal forms of humanity as portrayed in the literature of the ages. That method of investigation includes both of the other methods; it uses analytical and synthetical processes.

Moreover, the method of investigation makes discoveries; and thus it really does contribute toward the building of the higher round at the top of the ladder. It is not wont to say: "Lo, behold! I have built a new round to the ladder of human experience," when it has only begun at the bottom and built for itself a round. That was built fifty-five hundred years ago. It does not have that false pride of originality which wishes to do everything for itself, but the method of investigation will avail itself of the achievements of the race and prove its title to originality by building a round at the top.

And now as we have come to consider what bears on educational reforms, let us ask: what shall be the attitude of the teacher to the educational reformer? I reply: he shall reverence the spirit of the educational reformer. He will very likely find that the educational reformer is a narrow man; that he often builds rounds of the ladder that had been built long ago, or that he builds a round now and then to some wrong support, but he shall respect and reverence the spirit of the educational reformer, and endeavor by all means to teach his own pupils to be educational reformers and possessed of the true spirit of investigation. He shall, therefore, reverence these reformers, and not simply repeat over the catalogue of their mistakes.

It is great to have faith in a cause. Faith gives life and enthusiasm. Engaged in the business of leaving the accumulated wisdom of the past there is constant danger of forming a too receptive habit of mind. The fires of criticism and alertness may die out and the habits of "dry-as-dust" supervene. The educational reformer, even of the narrowest type, helps to preserve us from this dreadful result. He is the salt of the earth to all who are engaged in teaching. In the place of dull or lifeless conformity he inspires doubt; and doubt is the parent of investigation. Investigation is the parent of scientific certainty.

The educational reformer, when he throws his challenges in the face of prescribed custom, has done an essential service to teachers, even if

mature investigation sustains no one of his points of attack. After the discussion there is a more intelligent use of the old method, or else the adoption of a new and better method.

The attitude of the teacher towards the reformer should be, therefore, one of open-minded, open-hearted attention. "Prove all things and hold fast to the good?" yes, but the beginning is investigation. The teacher will kindle his coal at the torches of the great reformers. He will look at the blaze of their enthusiasm, and say to all like-minded, "Ascend and blaze at every round of the ladder. Let us all rejoice in the genial light and warmth of the blaze kindled by the oil of great enthusiasm and pure human love."

WHAT CHILDREN KNOW.

BY J. M. GREENWOOD.

Parents transmit possibilities only to their offspring ; hence the child's knowledge is acquired, not inherited. These possibilities may be either good or bad ; physically—strong or weak ; mentally and morally—acute or dull. To arouse the dormant powers of the child, two forces are employed ; the one, the world force ; the other, teachers and books.

The child's original capital of knowledge is nothing. Action and reaction induce appropriation and assimilation. From the time the child is born till the age of six is a sort of "unexplored region" on the educational chart. Mothers know that their little ones prattle, reason, and investigate ; but teachers generally regard them as small vessels to be filled with knowledge, wit, and wisdom. No one yet has been able to approximate the amount of knowledge that the average child of six summers possesses.

Dr. J. M. Gregory, a few years ago, made a note of all the words used in one week by a little boy six years old that lived in the country, and this vocabulary embraced more than six hundred words. This child had never attended school, yet he had a good knowledge of the meaning of the words he used.

Prof. G. Stanley Hall, some time last year, began a series of examinations amongst some of the very little folks in the Boston schools, an account of which was published in the May number of the *Princeton Review* for 1883, and is an attempt to find out what children have in their minds.

This curious and remarkable report by Professor Hall, is entitled "The Contents of Children's Minds." The professor, assisted by several superior lady teachers, examined about two hundred small children, probably *very* small children, upon many common as well as *uncommon* things, and tabulated the results, which furnished the material for the article referred to.

My observations with small children being so different from the results published by Professor Hall, I decided to investigate the subject among the lowest grade of pupils attending the public schools of Kansas City. Pupils are admitted to school in the State of Missouri at the age of six, hence the children that I examined were six years old and upwards.

The examination was conducted during the months of March, April, and May of the present year. During this period the total number of pupils examined was 678, of whom forty-seven were colored. Sixty-nine questions from Professor Hall's list were selected, and the results are here-with tabulated with his for purposes of comparison :

COMPARATIVE RESULTS OF EXAMINATIONS.

BY G. S. HALL AND J. M. GREENWOOD.

NAME OF OBJECT OR CONCEPTION.	PER CENT. OF CHILDREN IGNORANT OF IT.		
	In Boston.	In Kansas City. White.	Colored.
Bee-hive	80	59.4	66
Crow	77	47.3	59
Ant	65.5	21.5	19.1
Squirrel	63	15	4.2
Robin	60.5	30.6	10.2
Sheep	54	3.5	0
Bee	52	7.27	4.2
Frog	50	2.7	0
Pig	47.5	1.7	0
Chicken	35.5	.5	0
Worm	22	.5	0
Butterfly	20.5	.5	0
Hen	19	.1	0
Cow	18.5	5.2	0
Growing wheat	92.5	23.4	66
Elm-tree	91.5	52.4	89.8
Oak	87	66.2	58.6
Pine	87	65.6	87.2
Maple	83	31.2	80.8
Growing moss	81.5	30.7	42.5
Growing strawberries	78.5	26.5	1.1
Where are the child's ribs	90.5	13.6	6.4
" " " " lungs	81	26	44.6
" " " " heart	80	18.5	18.1
" " " " wrists	70.5	3	0
Where are the ankles	65.5	14.1	0
" " " waist	52.5	14	4.2
" " " hips	45	14	4.2
" " " knuckles	36	2.9	8.5
" " " elbows	25	1.5	0
Know right and left hand	21.5	1	10.2
" cheek	18	.5	0
" forehead	15	.5	0
" throat	13.5	1.1	0
" knee	7	1.6	0
" stomach	6	27.2	45.9

NAME OF OBJECT OR CONCEPTION.	PER CENT. OF CHILDREN IGNORANT OF IT.		
	In Boston.	In Kansas City.	
		White.	Colored.
Dew	78	39.1	70.2
What season it is	75.5	31.8	56.1
Seen hail	73	13.6	18.1
“ rainbow	65	10.3	2.1
“ sunset	56.5	16.6	0
“ sunrise	53.5	19.5	0
“ clouds	35	7 3	0
“ stars	14	3	0
“ moon	7	26	53
Seen watch-maker at work	68	30.1	49.7
“ file	65	20.8	36.1
“ plow	64.5	13.9	8.5
“ spade	62	7.3	15
“ hoe	61	5	10.6
“ brick-layer at work	44.5	10.1	2.1
“ shoe-maker at work	25	8.7	0
“ axe	12	18.4	53
<i>That leather things come from animals</i>	93.4	50.8	72.3
Origin of cotton things	90	35.7	15
What flour is made of	89	34.7	57.4
What bricks are made of	81.1	33.1	53
Shape of the world	70.3	46	47
Origin of woollen things	69	55	44
Never been in bathing	64.5	13.4	0
Can tell no rudiment of a story	58	23.6	12.7
Not know wooden things from trees	55	19.3	6.4
Origin of butter	50.5	6.7	0
Origin of meat (from animals)	48	8.3	12.7
Cannot sew	47.5	23.4	0
Have never saved cents at home	36	8.2	12.7
Never been in the country	35.5	13.1	19
Can repeat no verse	28	20	42.5
Source of milk	20.5	4	0
Total pupils examined		631	47

The average age of the pupils would not vary far from six and three-fourths years. In all such examinations, to be of great practical value, the occupations of the parents should be taken into account, as well as the opportunities the pupils have for gaining information. Children raised on a farm know ten times more of trees, vegetables, fruits, grain, grasses, birds, and domestic animals than those living in towns and cities, while city children are far better informed in regard to those things which they see daily. But a child may even be ignorant of many very common things and yet not be an ignorant child. Ignorance, as I take it, is absence of knowledge, and knowledge is whatever one knows.

It also appears that Professor Hall pushed his investigations somewhat further than even this list of objects would indicate, and some of the answers he recorded convey a degree of thoughtfulness hardly to be looked for among little children.

If ninety per cent. of the Boston children could not find their ribs, is it to be wondered at that they should think "cheese is squeezed from butter"? That is a much closer guess than a great deal of what has passed currently as "scientific knowledge" during the present century. How religious the answer "that God stuck the trees into the ground" when we reflect that trees were on the earth before man!

In all seriousness, what should babies know "of forty degrees from the zenith," or that the sun goes down or up? It took humanity a long time to settle the "sun question," and even Professor Young leaves it now in a blaze of doubt. The little urchin who said that "God lights the stars with matches" displayed a degree of profound comparison worthy of the sage of Concord, and only equalled by that other little philosopher who thought the stars "sparks from God's fire-engine."

Yet I cannot leave the astronomical phase of this examination without glancing briefly at one or two other topics of much deeper significance, and which, by the way, are original contributions to theologic and speculative thought. Listen! "The bad place is like an oven or a *police-station*, where it burns, yet all is dark, and folks want to get back, and God kills people or beats them with a cane." Pretty good theology this, and why it was paraded as an evidence of ignorance I am at a loss to understand.

These and all similar statements so gravely recorded in the *Princeton Review*, are strong evidences of deep philosophical insight upon the part of the examined, as well as commendable skill in obtaining such rare and remarkable answers to questions both profound and intricate. For years I have entertained the idea that children when they first enter school, come there pretty liberally stocked with knowledge—knowledge of facts, of things, and fair interpreters of human nature, and a keen sense of justice and that the skilful teacher is one who is able to utilize to the child's advantage all this knowledge, while the unskilful one plods along as if it were so much "dead loss."

All primary work in the school-room should be hitched on to what the child brings with himself to school; otherwise that fundamental principle—to pass by easy steps from the known to the unknown—is violated.

ELEMENTARY DEPARTMENT.

FIRST SESSION.

WEDNESDAY AFTERNOON, JULY 16, 1884.

This department was called to order at 2:30 P. M. in the Lecture Room of the Congregational Church by the president, F. Louis Soldan, of St. Louis, Mo.

Prayer was offered by Z. Richards, of Washington, D. C.

P. R. Walker, of Illinois, was chosen vice-president, *pro tem*.

On motion a committee of three was appointed by the president to nominate a representative of the department, in the Council of Education.

President F. Louis Soldan then delivered the following

OPENING ADDRESS.

It is an agreeable duty for me to welcome so many of my fellow-teachers in this meeting of the elementary section of the Association. It is a pleasure to meet those whose interests and experience resembles ours. Such meetings are both pleasant and profitable. They are an agreeable diversion and a departure from the monotony of daily work. The teacher occupies the place of authority in the school-room, he controls others according to the dictates of his individual judgment, and is accustomed to see his will received as incontrovertible law. Such a position is likely to have an undesirable influence on the manners and habits of each of us, and to make the outlines of personality too hard and rigid to move smoothly in the current of life with others. There is a danger of becoming mildly imperious, impatient of contradiction, and slow of adaptation. Flexibility of manner is lost, and opinion is apt to assert itself dogmatically. Constant intercourse with young and immature minds is likely to result in

a permanent adjustment of speech, habits, and mind to the level of the child, which makes it more and more difficult, as the teacher grows older, to readjust his manners and views to the ever-changing level of life in general.

And yet such a readjustment is necessary and wholesome for the teacher. He must not allow himself to become narrow, to be shut up within the close walls of a school-room so entirely that he hears the demands which his time makes on education and which are shouted in street and market but from a dim distance, faintly. It is a principle almost as old and as fixed as the mountains: Educate the child, not for the school but for life. To know the demands of life the teacher must keep in living contact with it. He must try to preserve freshness and buoyancy of spirit. He must not allow the dust of the school to settle on the wings of his soul. The remedy for many of these evils is found in social intercourse with others, who meet us as our equals or superiors. Such intercourse, which is useful to everybody, is a necessity for the specialist, to him who by the nature of his vocation is obliged to move within one circumscribed and uniform stratum of society, and is excluded thereby from the modifying and smoothing influences of the current of life in general.

There is another remedy open to the specialist by which he may counteract this tendency (which may be called the professional bias) in his own mind, namely, the intercourse with others of the same vocation. In them he sees himself reflected, and realizes qualities which he himself either possesses or lacks, and which he wishes to imitate or discard. These meetings possess a still higher value than that of being professional incentives and personal correctives. They form a kind of educational exchange where teachers can meet at the noonday of the year to determine the value of current educational doctrines and demands. In this market of opinions, exchanges and transfers are made, in which all are gainers. Those who have been invited by their fellow-teachers to come here and present information to them, attain higher clearness by being compelled to state their views to others and by listening to their replies. Those who listen to the papers and discussions, on the other hand, have an opportunity of enlarging and correcting their own experience by that of others. We visit, as it were, each other's schools in spirit, although they may be thousands of miles apart, when the substance of the views prevailing in their management is placed before our mind's eye.

There can be no better means of disseminating educational ideas and a knowledge of new school-appliances, of clearing and sifting current educational doctrines, than meetings like this vast gathering of teachers from all the parts of the land.

Besides the general meetings of the National Educational Association, there are opportunities offered for an exchange of opinions among teachers

belonging to special classes of schools. Higher education, normal schools, superintendency, art teaching, in short, every great feature of school work finds time and place for discussion in the meeting of some special section.

Among these departments there is none of higher importance than that on elementary education, in whose work you have allowed me to participate this year. In elementary education the largest number of teachers is engaged. It reaches the largest number of pupils and supplies them with the most indispensable acquirements for life. To the development and perfection of elementary education, by far the greater part of the educational funds of the State and of the attention of the public is given. It is capable of reacting with the strongest influence on the community at large, for it sends its little child-messengers to every home, and brings every parent in contact with school work. It is a most potent agency in arousing that general educational interest among the people, by which all other institutions of learning are benefited.

Elementary education is of the greatest importance as a basis for all higher educational work. It renders secondary instruction possible; it makes its road smooth and its course speedy. When elementary education is imperfect and deficient, it drags higher institutions of learning down from the lofty position which they ought to occupy and compels them to devote time and strength to preparatory primary work, which clearly lies below their province. On the quality of elementary education all higher education depends. While, historically speaking, the common schools have grown out of the universities, it is equally true that at the present moment colleges and universities grow out of the common schools. The common schools neglect part of their task if they forget to stimulate the pupil to continue his education after he has finished their course. At the end of the common school course, or rather along its road there must be finger-posts pointing to library or college.

Within a department whose work it is to discuss questions concerning a branch of education as important as that of elementary instruction, there can be no lack of topics which are of vital interest and which challenge the attention of every thinking teacher. Most of the educational problems of the day which require solutions relate to elementary education.

Among the questions connected with primary education which have been most prominent during the past, are those concerning the adaptation of some of the kindergarten ideas to elementary instruction, and the employment of some of the kindergarten occupations or devices, in a more or less modified form in the common schools. Connected with this is another problem which has attracted the attention of a still wider circle: The question of manual training. It is in so far connected with kindergarten instruction, as in the latter the training of the hand is carried on together with the development of the mind through gifts and games. There is no

doubt that, theoretically speaking, manual training, if it is of value to the child from his third to his sixth year, continues to form a valuable means of training after the child enters the school. But practically, in many schools, the truth of this inference is not admitted, for in them no such systematic training is imparted to the hand.

Various views as to the manner of making manual training part of elementary instruction have been advanced. There are two principles in regard to this question on which all educators agree, namely, that the hand should receive training at an early age while it is still plastic, and that many things may be learned better by doing them than by reading or hearing about them. This principle, old as it is, has received new force through the efforts of the kindergarten teachers. They have done much service to the cause by showing that not all education which the child should receive is necessarily book education.

While there is an essential agreement in regard to those principles, there is the widest difference regarding the mode in which the training of the hand should be embodied among the immediate aims of common school instruction. While it would be unbecoming to advocate from this place any special view on this subject, there can be no objection to a brief statement of the principal plans of giving manual training in the primary schools. Three general directions may be recognized in the suggestions made by the friends of the cause: (1) Manual training limited to drawing; (2) carried on through drawing and the incidental use of objects and colors in illustrating the topics of arithmetic, geography, and natural science; and, lastly, manual training in more or less simple workshops connected with the schools.

Those who advocate that manual training in the common schools should limit itself to the thorough study of drawing, with due emphasis on the industrial side of it, and should, perhaps, include modelling also, assert that only a comparatively small percentage of the children in the schools of the land will enter the trades and their workshops, as a glance at the statistics of the census will show. Training in any kind of workshop, therefore, is not a legitimate task for the common school. The training of the hand, however, is of educational importance to *every* child, no matter what his vocation may be. Therefore, while direct industrial work is not a proper subject of common school training, they hold that drawing *should* be taught because it gives manual training of a sort beneficial to every child. Drawing imparts a knowledge of form with all the training of the observing and imitating faculties which this involves, and it cultivates habits of neatness and the careful handling of materials.

The second plan to which I referred, adds to the instruction in drawing the incidental but systematic use and handling of objects and color by the children themselves in the studies which admit of such a course. This

plan deserves special notice, because, while it imparts manual training on one side, it is an application of the kindergarten idea on the other, since it leads the child to acquire knowledge through the handling of objects.

The leading idea in manual training through the incidental use of objects, is to devise a graduated series of illustrations or gifts which are to be used in connection with the various studies and topics as they make their appearance in a course of study. Thus, to mention a few special examples which come to my notice: One of the New Jersey teachers who is with us to-day adapts the ruled surface of the kindergarten table to instruction in arithmetic in the primary grades, by ruling on a piece of cardboard one hundred squares, and on this board the children represent easy problems objectively, by using counters. In one of the large Brooklyn schools quite a number of practical devices of this kind have been invented, and are most successfully used. A lady connected with that school is present, and will present a clearer and fuller view of these important experiments than I can give in the short space allotted to this address. It would be a thankful task for a thinking teacher to formulate a plan for such incidental, objective, and manual training for the various grades of instruction.

The third and most radical plan of imparting manual training to the pupils of elementary schools, is that of giving instruction in workshops connected with the schools. Denmark has had the lead in this experiment. The remarkable success of some schools there established and carried on in accordance with this plan by Mr. Claassen, has attracted attention throughout Europe. In our country, among many other realizations of this idea, the workingmen's school of New York deserves mention on account of the consistent plan there worked out, by which manual training is made to run parallel with intellectual instruction from the lowest to the highest grade. There is drawing taught in all the rooms, and whatever is drawn on slate or paper is then imitated in solid material in the workshop. The lower classes work with a composition that can easily be cut with a chisel, the more advanced classes in wood. The principal of the school has assured me that the time which is taken daily from the regular lessons for this kind of work is not lost, even as far as intellectual progress is concerned, and that the manual training which his classes receive seems to promote indirectly, but very perceptibly, the intellectual development of the children. Professor Woodward, of the St. Louis Manual Training School, whose noble work is known to all of you, has, I think, expressed a similar opinion.

While experiments like those described seem necessarily confined in their application to manufacturing centres, and their introduction is usually beyond the power of the teacher, there is an open field for the display of the inventive ingenuity of the profession in the direction of incidental manual training. How much can be done by industry and talent in regard to

the invention of instructive and well-graded occupations for children is well exemplified by the exhibit of the kindergartens in the Capitol. The coming world's exposition in New Orleans will offer an opportunity to show the progress made in this direction.

Leaving these two important topics of manual training and of the adaptation of kindergarten ideas, another problem (which appeals to us) might, perhaps, be mentioned, namely, the advancement of professional science and the assistance which the teachers of elementary instruction can render to it.

I spoke at the beginning of this paper of the professional bias which the teacher's work, continued through many years, is likely to engender in him. We are apt to become lost in the little routine of our work. The intellectual eye being compelled by the nature of the vocation to dwell on the details of our labors, becomes near-sighted and unable to recognize the more remote and grander outlines of wider views, unless we vary the daily rhythm of school duties by reading and study. It is a marvellous privilege of cultured man that when he opens the work of one of the great writers and thinkers of the world, their thought which has lain buried on the printed page, rises into new life in his mind. He looks at life, grave and gay, through Shakespeare's eyes, he sees the mysteries of the universe through Plato's soul. He stands upon the heights of the world, his glance penetrates immeasurable distances and his soul bursts through the narrowing limitations which the daily task has drawn round it, and soars upward. Cheerfulness and a kind heart for every erring young humanity remain his golden treasure and possession.

Not only general reading, but also the study of science, to whose practice his efforts are devoted, is a necessity for the progressive teacher. In it are embodied some of those eternal verities which in all changes remain fixed and immovable, like the guiding star of the north. When the wind of irrational public demands blows into the sails of the educational vessel, heavily laden with subjects as it is, a glance above will help him to sail his true course. The demands of the time should not be disregarded, but the teacher must learn that neither the loudest claim nor the newest study is the most important.

The science of pedagogics is not to be learned from books alone; it is to be drawn from the study of living childhood, and here the teacher may be an original investigator. Ours is a new and growing science, starting into a fuller life at the present time. A new line of study and research has sprung up and there is no position in which more valuable contributions can be made to the science of education than that of the teacher of elementary education. I mean the study of child-nature on an inductive basis, through observing and recording the ways of children. Professor Stanley Hall's remarkable work in this direction is known to all of you.

Bronson Alcott's book was a first step in the same direction. In Germany Sigismund published almost thirty years ago a faithful record of the development of mental life in an infant. Preyer's "The Soul of a Child," a more scientific work on the same subject, was introduced to the American readers through the pages of the Magazine "Education." Darwin's "Sketch of an Infant" is well known to most of you.

The richest literature in this specialty has sprung up in France within the last twenty years. In 1863 a little book containing a record of the development of intelligence in an infant, written by a German scholar, Thierry Tiedman, but either unnoticed or forgotten in his own country, attracted the attention of a French teacher, who translated it for one of the Paris educational journals. It was read and studied extensively, and instigated similar researches, leading to the publication of several important works.

The works of Mr. Perez, "The First Three Years of Childhood," "The Child after his Third Year," and "The Psychology of the Child," and Mr. Egger's book, "The Development of Intelligence and Language in Children," mark an era in pedagogical knowledge. In those works a careful and exact record of the traits of children is made and inferences are drawn on the basis of incontrovertible facts.

Of the development of the mental life of children of school age, exact and full records are needed, and no one can supply this information better than the teachers engaged in elementary instruction. Those investigations in particular which must be carried on through question and answer can be more successfully attended to by the teachers to whose presence, language, and ways the children are accustomed, than by anybody else.

Allow me to say a few words of the work of this session of the elementary department, as it appears on the program. There is one paper on Form and Design, one on Music and another on Early Lessons in English. While each paper is distinct and independent of the other, they form together a systematic program. The paper on form is a description of the work in this direction in a large public school in Brooklyn, N. Y., of which Miss Morris, one of the representative women of the profession, is the principal. Sickness prevents her from being with us to-day, but her associate and assistant, Miss Comings, has prepared an essay on the subject which she will present to us to-day. While this paper treats of a subject akin to that of Manual Training and therefore points in the direction of utility, Mr. Holt's paper will treat of Music, a study tending to develop taste and pointing in the direction of æsthetic education. The last paper discusses a topic belonging to intellectual education; it treats of that study which must ever remain the central and highest point in common school education: The English Language.

In conclusion, allow me to thank you for your kindness in calling me to this chair by your action last year. May this session prove profitable and pleasant to all of us. For my own part I have never left any of these meetings, without confessing to myself that I had learned something, and without feeling thankful to my fellow teachers for giving me an opportunity of meeting them in council, and of listening to their words.

The address of the president was followed by the reading of the following paper by Miss Fannie S. Comings, of Brooklyn, N. Y.

FORM, COLOR, AND DESIGN.

BY FANNIE S. COMINGS.

"It is only by labor that thought can be made healthy, and only by thought that labor can be made happy and the two cannot be separated with impunity." It seems to me that this thought of Ruskin's is in the mind of all earnest educators of the day, for the subjects of technical skill, industrial education, and manual labor, in connection with mental growth, are being discussed on all sides. How the two great factors of physical and mental growth, labor, and thought can be brought together to produce a harmonious result in the development of a human being is the problem in the educational world of to-day.

We may fill the mind with useful ideas and beautiful thoughts, but "the hand alone can give precision and durability to the simplest ideas after all. When the mind is active and the hand inapt ideas run to waste, therefore," says Dr. Seguin, "let us educate the hand."

But it is not only the hand we must educate, the sense of beauty in form and color must be awakened and the power of the eye cultivated. "We ask for a sense of beautiful forms, harmony of colors, etc., in the workman, and find only dull eyes and senses which cannot tell the crooked from the straight and know not how to put light and shadow in the right places." This would not be if Fröbel's plans for the harmonious development of the child could be fully carried out, or if our public schools gave the proper instruction to develop these ideas. The poorer the man the better educated his hand should be and the more his eye needs to be trained to appreciate the charms of form and color which surround him.

One of the chief agents in hand culture is *drawing*. Its importance is felt more as the demand is made for more intelligent and careful manual labor and more time is being given to it in our courses of study. Drawing trains not only the hand but also the eye. We must first see intelligently before we can express clearly what we have seen, and when a person has once acquired this power of perceiving and showing forth to others, what a stronghold he has within himself!

There is not a calling in which an educated eye, nice in distinguishing form, color, size, distance, and the like, and a hand educated to an equal

nicety, will not be of inestimable service to its possessor. An artisan with these gifts is in constant demand.

When an eye rests upon something it sees first color, then the form which the color takes. Form may exist without color, but we are never satisfied with the mere outline, or the light and shade alone. The eye craves the brightness and variety which we see everywhere in nature. "Color is the smile of nature." It does two things for us—charms us with its beauty and serves to separate the forms of objects, or parts of objects around us. "Had nature applied but one color to all objects they would have been indistinct in form as well as monotonous in aspect. It is the boundless variety of her tints that perfects the modelling and defines the outline of each, detaching equally the modest lily from the grass whence it springs, and the glorious sun, parent of all color, from the firmament in which it shines."

The human eye and hand acquire their power slowly, and all will agree, I think, that it is in childhood the training should begin. Miss Morris thought of this when a short time ago she introduced into her school a systematic study of Form and Color in the production of a Design.

I shall be able to tell you only, in a brief way, how she has tried to develop these ideas in her work in drawing, and show you some of the results. The plan, I know, is not entirely new, it is foreshadowed in the form and stick laying of the kindergarten and in most of the systems of industrial drawing. It is not intended to take the place of the object-drawing, but to be carried along with it.

In Brooklyn we have no public "child gardens" in which to nurture and train the budding powers before we place the delicate plants in the cold atmosphere of the graded class, so we need something especially adapted to give power to the little hand and to quicken the eye. Children love to use their fingers, yet many at five and six years of age are very helpless when you put a pencil in their hands and have eyes which seem scarcely yet to have been used.

How often when we look over the slates do we find letters or figures made upside down, lines zig-zag or partly curved, or three or four times the length required. I know how discouraged I felt not long ago after looking over the work of the lower grade and finding how incapable the little hands and eyes were of copying the simplest work of their teacher! To teach the little people to draw and design seemed almost an absurdity, and yet we made the attempt. They were allowed and encouraged to copy and draw from memory the outline drawings of the illustrations to their reading lessons and thoroughly enjoyed it, as you know all children do, although they usually have to tell you what they have drawn, and you have to draw upon your imagination to perceive the truth of their statements. "The art of seeing must precede the art of drawing," and the bright eyes as well as the little hands must be taught to work readily.

We must begin very early to teach them order and arrangement. One of the first things a child must learn in school is that he is a part of a great whole, and that he has a place of his own, just as every minute piece of glass has its own place in a grand mosaic. Children brought up in cultured homes, or fortunate children nurtured in the kindergarten soon learn this, but many that we have to deal with in our large cities have no idea of government and a feeling of no limitation to the exercise of their awakened powers. We must make them feel the restraining influence of society and teach them to observe, and arrange, and construct in such a way as to make the best use of the knowledge we impart. A wise teacher will find much to help her in this direction in the drawing lesson. It has been found conducive to good penmanship to line the slate or paper to be written on, as a guide.

In the kindergarten the slates and tables are ruled in squares so that the child, when building with his blocks, laying his forms, or drawing, is able to present regular and symmetrical work. The dotted surface we find answers the same purpose, and is best suited to our primary classes. The dots are half an inch apart and are lettered and numbered so that a child soon learns to find certain dots called for by the teacher and can readily show you the place of beginning and ending, or how far a line of certain length would extend. A blackboard is dotted to correspond with the slates and books, but the dots are three inches apart.

Of course the first lessons are very simple drawing "standing up" lines, "lying down" lines, and "slanting" lines from dot to dot. Then the same lines covering three dots, four dots, etc. The lines are then combined to form angles, triangles, squares, and oblongs, covering a given number of dots and many little outline figures of simple objects, such as ladders, doors, windows, tables, bird-houses, flower-pots, etc., are drawn, using the dots as guides.

Dictation lessons can be commenced very early and will be found a great assistance in training the child, in close attention and rapidity of work.

As soon as a child can draw a square he is taught to draw the diameters, to form a simple design, and there is placed in his hands a box of colored crayons.

The class have special object lessons in form, from the beginning, using tablets, paper folding, and clay, and also lessons in distinguishing and matching colors, so, that they are able to name the colors in their boxes and give the name, "square" and its "diameters" to the figure drawn. The teacher outlines upon the board the same design, and shows the children how to color the alternate squares, telling them at first which colors to use. After several lessons they may be led to choose the colors they think would look well together, and thus their individual taste will be

developed, and the first lessons in harmony can be given. Their box of crayons contains six colors, but at first they are allowed to use but two in the same figure, for it is necessary to teach them which always look well together.

Some children are found who insist in putting a bright blue and green together, or a purple square next to a red one. The brightest colors attract the eye, and give them pleasure, but by experiment and a little careful guiding on the part of the teacher, the ideas of contrast and harmony will soon be developed.

The first year the children draw and color upon their slates, but in the second year they are given a book. From drawing the diameters they go on to the diagonals, and then to shorter lines and closer divisions of the surface of the square or oblong, having only straight line figures the first two years. They learn the law of opposites in drawing and coloring, and it is truly a delight to them when they begin to understand it well enough to produce a perfect design of their own.

In placing the color upon the surface, the children acquire a certain dexterity and delicacy of touch, and all the time the eyes are fed and pleased with the bright tints. The pupils are encouraged from the beginning to make up their own designs, and much original work is produced. Children soon tire of working by pattern, and if we ask them only to imitate we stunt the growth of the creative power in their minds, and deprive them of the great pleasure of showing that they possess the knowledge and power requisite to produce a thing of beauty. "By contemplating beauty the character becomes beautiful," and I am sure that the awakening which the mind receives in this development will react in a beneficial way on the growing man.

At the beginning of the third year, two drawing-books are given to the children, a "home book," and a "school book;" in the latter the design is drawn only, the figure being dictated by the teacher, then placed upon the board and colored by one of the pupils. It is the last thing the children see on leaving the room in the afternoon, and for their "home work" they draw and color the same design from memory, and bring to school the next morning for their teacher's criticism. "The art of memory," says Payne, "is the art of paying attention," and this is a very good exercise towards gaining the attention of the young mind, and thus strengthening the memory. Of course some children can do much better than others, and some do very poor work indeed at first; but I have not known of a case where a child's second book was not a great improvement in every respect on his first, and in my dealings with the pupils in the primary classes, I have not known of a child that did not take pleasure in the work; they talk about it, at home and in the street, looking for pretty designs in oil-cloth, tiling, colored glass, or frescoing, and try to

imitate or improve upon them. The color is the attraction ; not one-half the enthusiasm could be aroused with the uncolored design, we know, for we have tried it.

Each teacher is provided with a book containing designs suitable for her grade, for it is necessary to put before the children at first good designs. The power to originate comes slowly. These patterns may be chosen from any good examples of decorative art, or may be the figures from the children's industrial drawing-book. The use of the dotted surface is continued in the grammar grades for the dictation work only. As soon as possible curved lines and the box of water colors are introduced. In the lower grades, the soft crayons or wax pencils are used, because they are easier to handle, and because the little ones, I am ashamed to tell you, have no desks or tables to work upon.

A short time has to be spent in teaching the children how to flow the color, and to handle their brushes ; then on the first pages of their exercise books the different mathematical figures are correctly drawn and colored, while definite instruction is given in the principles of geometrical construction, and in the tones and qualities of color. Every alternate page is used for a design drawn and colored from dictation or copy, and on the other pages are found the designs showing the pupil's own taste and originality. Sometimes part of a design is given for the pupils to finish in their own way ; sometimes a design is asked for made up of certain colors or certain forms, and sometimes each pupil will bring in a different design, and the class will vote on which they consider the best, and then all will copy the same in their books.

Colored inks are used to obtain certain tints, but the moist water colors have been found best for general use. Compasses are used in circular designs. As I said, in the beginning, these lessons should not abolish the lessons in object drawing, but should be taken in connection or alternate with those lessons, the one being an aid to the other. Pupils delight to apply the color to the decoration of the drawing of an object, and much may be done for them towards the formation of a good and pure taste, if we bring them into contact with the beautiful to be found in form, and in the harmony and contrast of color. We are constantly surrounded by the beautiful that we do not perceive because our eyes have not been opened. Every purchase we make with a design or pattern about it, encourages good or bad art, and I am sure if our young people were better instructed in the principles of good design, we should certainly have fewer ugly and discordant things to look upon.

Dr. Seguin says in his Report on Education, "Nothing ever so fine in its color and details leaves an impression of beauty unless it fills the chamber of the eye harmoniously, or attracts the eye in a series of plans," and so it is in the harmonious arrangement of color, and in the balance,

symmetry, and repetition of forms, that even young children may be taught to perceive the beautiful.

We believe that the effect of these lessons is seen in other work — the writing has improved, the children's books are kept neater, and there is more order in the arrangement of different exercises in their blank books. The combining and thinking has been a good exercise for the mind. Many of the children as soon as they have learned to use their water colors, have developed into embryo artists, and "painted ships upon a painted ocean," and pictures of flowers of every hue and shape, have been produced, all showing that the artistic sense is awakened. Dr. Wilson says in his admirable little book, "The Five Gateways of Knowledge," "To cultivate the powers of the eye so that it shall be the entrance gate of the largest amount of instruction and delight, is one of the great ends of all education," and we feel that in opening up to our boys and girls the beauties in the harmony and contrasts of form and color, we are developing that in their character which will not only produce pleasure and a certain technical skill, but may bring forth a beautiful design of the Maker of us all. For the results of a teacher's work are not found on paper, but in the mind and character of his pupil. "Though we travel the world over to find the beautiful," says Emerson, "we must carry it with us, or we find it not."

A lively discussion of the papers followed, and was participated in by W. H. Barry, of New Jersey; Z. Richards, Washington, D. C.; P. R. Walker, Illinois; W. E. Sheldon, Boston, Mass.; W. N. Barringer, Newark, N. J.; W. A. Bell, Indianapolis, Ind.; A. J. Rickoff, Yonkers, N. Y.; J. M. Greenwood, Kansas City, Mo.; C. E. Lane, Chicago, Ill.; Miss Eva A. Smedley, Belvedere, Ill., and other ladies and gentlemen.

The committee for nominating a representative in the Council of Education reported the name of Larkin Dunton, of Boston, as representative of this department. This report was unanimously adopted. On motion the following members were appointed a committee to nominate officers of the department for the ensuing year.

Z. RICHARDS, of Washington,

A. R. TAYLOR, of Kansas,

MISS F. S. COMINGS, of Brooklyn, N. Y.

The department now adjourned to meet at 2:30 P. M., on Thursday.

SECOND SESSION.

THURSDAY AFTERNOON, JULY 17, 1884.

The meeting was called to order by the president at 2:30 P. M., after which prayer was offered by Mr. Bell, of Indianapolis. The following paper was read by H. E. Holt, of Boston, Mass.

METHODS IN TEACHING MUSIC.

BY PROF. H. E. HOLT.

All true elementary teaching seeks to awaken an interest in the subject by presenting to the mind the real objects of thought. The teacher who can keep the pupils actively employed in thinking upon the subject, simply guiding the mind in its investigation, has learned much of the art of true elementary teaching. To do this successfully in teaching music the mind must be kept constantly active in thinking sounds. There is no subject taught in our public schools to which the principle of objective teaching can be more easily and successfully applied than in that of music; the real objects of thought are always at hand—we are never obliged to use substitutes in the form of pictures or diagrams. In teaching colors, we have arranged upon color charts the real objects constantly before the eye for comparison and study. If the pupil ever gains a clear perception of these different colors, it must be by observing them closely and comparing them critically.

The same is true of music; but we cannot put sounds upon charts as we can colors. The successful teaching of music demands that sounds should be as clearly presented and named to the ear as colors to the eye, and that repetitions and comparisons of these sounds should be made until they become perfectly familiar. If music is properly taught, no more reasoning power is required than is necessary in teaching colors and their names. The whole subject of reading music is comprehended when we train the mind to two conceptions, viz.: a conception of sounds in pitch and lengths. The former can be as clearly presented and named to the mind

as colors ; the latter can be as clearly indicated and named to the ear as inches and fractional parts of inches to the eyes. In reading music, we must be able to unite these two ideas. Music in our public schools should be taught in its simplicity as an art, and not in its complicity as a science. This is all accomplished by proper methods of teaching, which consists in presenting the real objects clearly to the mind, naming them orally, and giving practice upon them until they are known, and associating them with their true representation. If this is properly done, every character used in representing the pitch and length of sounds will have been named by teaching and naming the sound itself before the character is given. Not a question should be asked that is not immediately preceded by the sound to which it refers.

Music as an educational factor is worthy of a prominent place in our common-school studies, and educators will demand its adoption when its value is known, and the people will not be satisfied with the present superficial teaching of the subject. The most skilful instruction and supervision for the regular teachers will always be in demand, but we shall never secure the best results in music so long as it is regarded as a special study to be taught by special teachers.

It has been my firm conviction for a number of years that music in public schools must be put upon the same basis as other studies. Acting upon this conviction, it has been my study to so improve the methods of presenting this subject as to make available the teaching ability of the regular teachers. That the subject of music can be so simplified and systematically arranged as to secure for it the teaching ability of the regular teachers who know nothing of music as a science is no longer a question of doubt. Music stands sadly in need of teaching power in our schools. This power can be found in every school-room that is so fortunate as to have a real teacher in other studies ; it only needs to be utilized. About a year and a half ago a superintendent of schools joined my normal training class for teachers. At the close of the first lesson he said to me, " Mr. Holt, that is just what I am doing in number ; you know I am no musician, and cannot sing, but I think I can do that." He took the course of ten lessons and directed his teachers how to train their classes in thinking sounds. At the close of the year the people were so much pleased with what had been accomplished in music that his salary was increased \$500, the amount formerly paid a music teacher.

This gentleman said to me, after directing the instruction in music in his schools for one year, " The most surprising thing to me in this matter is that I have learned to sing myself." Said he, " I have made three attempts to learn to sing in the old way and have given it up." It may be a matter of interest to know that this gentleman was a member of the Bridgewater Normal School eighteen years ago, while I was a teacher there. I

think I was considered a successful teacher of music at that time, but from my present standpoint I can see a good reason why this gentleman did not learn to sing, and I wish in all frankness to say that in my opinion the fault was not his. In the light of the developments growing out of my experience during the past three or four years I feel compelled to say that I consider my former results in teaching music in public schools a failure in comparison to what can and ought to be accomplished. When we consider the exalted position which Germany holds in the musical and educational world it is very natural that we should adopt her system of teaching music in our schools. I have come to believe that in so far as we have imitated Germany in this matter we have been led wrong in our methods of teaching. I judge from the results obtained in Germany and comparing them with what can be accomplished; also by the statements of German teachers and musicians who are familiar with the work in the German schools. The fact that the notation is not taught until the children are nine or ten years of age, and that rote singing is so long continued that part songs are taught by rote, shows that the Germans have either not appreciated the ability of little children to acquire a knowledge of sounds necessary to sing intelligently at sight, or have not learned to separate music from the complications of its science and notation and present it systematically in its simplicity to the mind.

To teach this subject successfully we should first establish a clear appreciation of the relative pitch of sounds. The series or succession of sounds known as the major scale is the basis upon which music is written, and forms the unit in thinking the pitch of sounds. This series of sounds being the unit must be presented to the mind as a whole which comprises so many mental objects, each of which must have an oral name by which it is known. The practice of this series of sounds is just where we should commence in teaching the art of reading music, and without a quick and accurate knowledge of these sounds in every possible relation to each other, all so-called reading music is a delusion and a sham. Reading music at sight consists in looking at characters and being able to think accurately the sounds which they represent in pitch and length. Does it appear to any real teacher that we shall ever succeed in training children to think in music by teaching the names of these characters, and by giving written examinations upon them? In training the mind to think sounds in pitch we must work with the real sounds continually. If we would train children to sing in time we must first teach them to think and feel the rhythm accurately. To require children to learn the fractional names of notes, as whole, half, quarter, eighth, etc., with their corresponding rests, and to attempt to measure their values by certain set motions of the hand for the different forms of measure, called beating time, is from my present standpoint a very bungling way of teaching this subject, notwithstanding it has been in use from time immemorial.

I am aware that I shall meet the strongest opposition from some of my fellow-musicians in the position I have taken upon this subject, and that I may be read out of the musical profession in consequence, but I feel sure of the support of the teaching profession, who have made the mental laws, by which the mind acquires knowledge, more of a study. After a clear comprehension of rhythm has been established, beating time is a very simple matter. Before we can discuss this subject intelligently we must first ascertain what it is that we are teaching. What are we presenting to the mind? What is the real object of thought? Is it anything that can be seen? Or must it be felt? Can we impart it through the eye? Or must the mind receive the impression through the ear?

The real objects of thought are mental, and must be felt; they are pulsations or accents, and cannot be conveyed to the mind through the eye. Any outward demonstration like beating time is only an indication that these accents have been established in the mind. The regularity and rapidity of the movement may be given through the eye, but the pulsations or accents, and the different combinations of lengths of sounds, must be indicated to the mind through the senses of feeling and hearing, and there is no other way. Every definite and distinct musical idea should in the teaching of music have an oral name. The important idea in teaching time is the grouping of accents, and it is of the greatest importance that these accents should be named. The teaching of time is thus reduced to the practice of accents, and the relative length of sounds measured by these accents.

Mr. Holt interspersed his paper constantly with practical illustration, showing how to teach the various steps in music, by asking the audience to act as a class, and to sing the exercises.

At the conclusion of the preceding essay, Mr. O. T. Bright, of Chicago, was called upon to read the paper which is here given.

ENGLISH INSTRUCTION FOR CHILDREN.

BY O. T. BRIGHT.

Probably at no other time since the days of Horace Mann, has educational dry bones been so shaken up as during the past five years; and almost the last subject to get an overhauling is the instruction given in our own language. More than any other one thing, however, the Mother Tongue is now asserting its right to attention, and that with the pupils in our primary schools.

Can the average English speaking child be trained to use good English? The only definite and truthful answer which our past experience can furnish for this question is, "He never has been;" and we might add with equal candor and truth, "Our results in this respect are fairly measured by our efforts."

In the acquirement of their means of communicating thought, children have been left to the resources of the homes, the playground, and the street. The result would indicate that all these resources have been taxed to their utmost.

Almost nothing in the line of bad English has escaped, and something of it appears in nearly every sentence the children utter — taking the average as the standard.

Latterly, however, the idea seems to be gaining ground with more thoughtful teachers, that it may be more in accordance with the laws of common sense, to instil habits of correct speech while children are young, than to try to reform the almost hopelessly bad habits of maturer years: — habits of which very few need a reminder outside of their own personal experience. Also that ease and elegance of written expression of thought, if acquired at all in school, must be the gradual growth of all the years of school life.

Slowly has dawned upon teachers here and there, the fact that with the vast majority of even those children who complete a grammar school course the study of grammar has not produced. and, from the very nature of the case, cannot produce correct use of the English language. In fact, taken in all its parts, it has very little to do with it. This is a somewhat

heterodox opinion, I know; but if the experience of the past fifty years proves anything, it proves the truth of the assertion.

After writing this thought, I was glad to read in the preface of Prof. Whitney's very excellent book, "Essentials of English Grammar," the following opinion on the same subject:

"That the leading object of the study of English Grammar is to teach the correct use of the English language, is, in my opinion, an error, and one which is gradually becoming removed. It should be a pervading element of the whole school training of the young, to make them use their own tongue with accuracy and force. Along with any special drill to this end some of the rudimentary distinctions and rules of grammar are conveniently taught. That is not, however, the study of grammar, and it will not bear the intrusion of much formal grammar without being spoiled for its own ends.

"It is constant use and practice under never failing watch and correction that makes good writers and good speakers. The application of direct authority (meaning the teachers) is the most efficient corrective.

"One must be a somewhat reflective user of language, to amend even here and there a point by grammatical reasons. No one ever changed from a bad speaker to a good one by applying the rules of grammar to what he said."

Whatever may be the thought of the opinions of a grammar school master, certainly those of so profound a scholar and eminent teacher as Prof. Whitney, are entitled to respectful consideration.

For the purposes of grammar-making the English language is an unfortunate one. The models for the old authors were the Latin grammars then in use; and it was found difficult indeed to stretch the English language over a Latin frame-work. It was done, however, after a fashion; and after various modifications, was divided into Orthography, Etymology, Syntax, and Prosody. Now and then an enterprising author has added another division called Orthoepey. These divisions, with their endless sub-divisions, classifications, definitions, and rules have been more or less rigidly followed since the days of Sowth and Lindley Murray.

The average annual production of English grammars for the past hundred years has been about twenty; the total product to the present time somewhat more than two thousand.

With rare exceptions, very few new ideas of any value have entered into grammar making; possibly because the old authors used them all up. But as tailors and drapers, the thousand and one authors have been a success. The new suits of clothes for the old ideas, ought to have satisfied the most capricious among them. Just how much the world owes these book-makers, it would be difficult to determine; but if one were to judge by what he sees and hears in visiting schools, in almost any part of

the country, he might be excused for not estimating the debt of gratitude an eternal one.

In the vast majority of schools no direct attention whatever is given to language until children are considered old enough to study grammar. "To study grammar" usually means to commit to memory a certain section of the text-book—definitions, rules, and illustrations. In very many cases, it is years before these definitions and rules assume any meaning whatever to the mind of the child. In vastly more cases they never do.

In spite of what is said about it in view of the waste of time, and the abuse of mind, there is something grotesque in the grammar study of the average country school. Certainly nothing could be more utterly barren of result.

After the definitions in Orthography and Etymology, comes parsing with all our senseless distinctions of mode, tense, gender, person, and case.

Oh! the millions and millions of words gabbled over in this parsing with its intermidable repetition!

Common, neuter, third, singular! Common, neuter, third, singular! Ding, dong! Ding, dong! Ding, dong!

After parsing comes analysis, whose only aim usually is to classify sentences, and tell in what grammatical way the elements are joined together, according to the pet forms and nomenclature of the author whose grammar happens to be in use.

In connection with analysis is that most senseless of all expedients for consuming the time of teachers and pupils—the diagraming of sentences.

This is the great feature of many modern grammars, and its discovery, or invention, was quite a godsend.

An irreverent teacher, who has made something of a stir in this country of late, once said in my hearing, that the tearing to pieces of a beautiful sentence, and hanging its distorted members on the hooks of a diagram, always put him in mind of a meat-market.

In all these processes, any study of beautiful thought or sentiment of the author whose composition is under consideration, or of how this or that element serves to modify by enlivening, beautifying, or strengthening, is not attempted nor thought of, in one class out of twenty.

I speak of schools in general, and from personal observation in them, and not of the best class of graded city or town schools. But a very small portion of the children of this country ever enter this sort of school; hence the discussion of any theme of education which leaves out the needs and possibilities of the ungraded school, will sadly fail of its purpose.

In these very schools have been educated, and are being educated, the great moving forces of this country.

For a very few moments, will you bear with a little of detail in noticing certain processes of so-called language teaching?

To fully appreciate Orthoepy, one must see what it may become in the hands of a skilled orthoepist. He studies the lips, teeth, tongue, palates, throat, and chest. He gathers together all the elementary sounds and sighs for more—often invents them. Then he classifies and defines his labials, dentals, linguals, sublinguals, palatals, gutturals, and pectorals. The acme of all his labors comes in diacritical marking.

Teachers' institutes and even normal schools run mad on these subjects, and when it comes to the schools we find children analyzing and marking words which they have pronounced correctly all their lives. And then they are marked on their marking and the grind goes on.

What is it all for? Orthoepy signifies the correct speaking of words. In teaching reading to beginners, there is no doubt that the use of certain elementary sounds and of a few marks, may be very advantageous in the hands of a skilful teacher, and that through their use children learn to read much more rapidly than in any other way. Their efficiency ceases, however, as an aid to reading with the first book. Leading strings are of no account after a child can run alone; and with a second reader he should learn his words in the form in which he will ever afterwards find them.

In the study of the dictionary, of course, a knowledge of marks is indispensable to determine the sound of a word; but after this is once done, the pronunciation of that word is fixed in the memory through the sense of hearing and not of seeing. There is and can be but one test of pronunciation, and that is pronunciation. If a child can read his lesson acceptably why should he mark the words in it? Would you give him a spelling lesson from words that you *know* he spells correctly?

With foreigners long and careful drill should be given on those sounds peculiar to English as compared with their own language. These vary with different languages, and so will the instruction of a careful teacher. Such instruction will be effective only when it is individual.

Orthography signifies the correct *writing* of words. If a child or an adult writes correctly the words in his vocabulary, his orthography is perfect whether he can define the term or not; whether or not he can detach prefixes and suffixes from Latin and Greek roots and define each fragment of the word; whether or not he can define l-y ly and t-i-o-n tion; or tell why one word ends in *able* and another in *ible*.

Did you ever try to pass a *scientific examination* in Orthography and Orthoepy? May the Lord help you if it is yet before you! We have them in the West and I have actually known a cultivated lady who could write one page or one hundred without an error, who was a teacher of unusual ability and experience and that to the personal knowledge of the examiners, refused a State certificate because she could not answer seventy-

five per cent. of a set of questions prepared by one of these orthographical cranks.

It may be well enough to know these things, but my advice is to teach children spelling. Probably more than half of all the time given to English in schools is taken up in the study of etymology. Let us look at the *noun* for example. We wish children to be able to *use nouns* in English sentences. Trace our nouns through all possible case relations, and I think there are fifteen or twenty of them, supply with all persons and genders, and we find the only error possible in *speech* (except in pronunciation) is in the formation of a few irregular plurals. An intelligent child of six years will unconsciously furnish almost as great variety of correct constructions, as the most hair-splitting pedagogue. He cannot use his nouns wrong. In *writing* there is the troublesome apostrophe for the possessive case. Why, after all our study of grammar, can so few overcome the only difficulty attendant upon the use of nouns? The reason is not far to seek.

We have just two adjectives that take a change of form—*this* and *that*. The others are the same words in whatever use, with whatever case, person, number, or gender. Still, the time of children is diverted from legitimate *use* of language, to learning and defining such classifications as this from several very modern grammars:

Adjectives are limiting and qualifying. Limited adjectives are divided into: Articles, subdivided into definite and indefinite. Pronominal adjectives, subdivided into distributives, demonstratives, reciprocals, and indefinites. *Numeral adjectives*, subdivided into cardinal, ordinal, and multiplicative. *Every* house was burned. *Every* limits house. The *frame* house was burned. *Frame* does not limit house.

And the foregoing stuff is taught to children who can write only barely respectable sentences—or worse! The old question comes, "*How does it help?*" No, it is not the old question; it is the new one.

One serious difficulty arises in the use of adverbs of manner. There is no trouble about any others. It cannot be overcome, however, by learning and applying the dozen different classifications of adverbs. In prepositions, conjunctions, and interjections the only difficulty is in using the right words, with which grammar has very little to do. Like a bad dream still lingers in my memory a certain classification of conjunctions that helped to make me a bad boy in school. English inflection is really insignificant. Properly speaking, nouns have none, except to form the plural; adjectives have none. The use of the separate words that make up the declension of pronouns should be taught long before the declension age. Then the formulating of the words into a table will be a very small matter.

The most serious trouble of all comes in the use of the irregular verbs. With pupils whose training has been only in *conjugating* and *parsing* verbs,

the cure is well nigh hopeless. What a time the children have over conjugation! I well remember my old Bullion's grammar, and how, as a twelve-year-old-boy, my first winter in a graded school was embittered by "I love, thou lovest, he loves." Night after night, when the other pupils had gone, I staid with the teacher and tugged at that senseless conjugation, and never learned it. I did just what nine-tenths of all grammar students do to-day, tried to commit to memory the words on those pages in their written order. My only idea of the subjunctive, was the word "if," of the potential, the words "may" and "might," of the indicative, was that it wasn't either of the others. The same is true of our pupils. How interesting is such a recitation as this—naming each person and number. "I loved, you loved, he loved. We loved, you loved, they loved." *Every body loved.*

With the exception of the verb "be," the only distinctive termination caused by the subject is in the third person singular of the present tense. Our rule, so often required, that a verb must agree with its subject in person and number does no harm, and it does little good, since identically the same verb agrees with every person in either number, excepting only the case noted, and the form *am* of the verb *be*.

Great effort has been made to maintain Murray's five modes and his distinctions of time, but their support is getting very shaky. Whitney and others give us three modes. Of these the use of the subjunctive is beyond the comprehension of grammar school children, or of anybody else except skilled writers. As was recently said in the *Pennsylvania School Journal*, "Grammars will soon dispose of it in a foot note." Modern home training of children makes superfluous any *school* practice of *children* in the use of the imperative.

Of the use of the irregular verbs I shall speak farther on. If learned in school it must be before conjugations can be taught. When this is done why conjugate at all? I recently heard a class parsing this sentence, "The boys ran quickly into the house." They were beginners and gave reasons for all statements. I wrote the parsing exactly as I heard it and it covered two full pages of foolscap. The teacher was an exceptionally good one. The children were from ten to twelve years of age. Of course as they advanced the process would be much abbreviated; but it represents the same thing.

I pondered over the lesson long and earnestly asking myself many questions. After the sentence is finished is the meaning at all clearer? Is any grammatical error guarded against? Is any thought awakened? How has the thoughtful, practical use of English been advanced? What *has* the recitation gained for the children? Until we can answer these questions satisfactorily in view of our responsibility to these children, wouldn't it be just as well to call a halt in this matter of parsing?

In the study of syntax taken at the proper time and in the proper manner, there is material for the most delightful and profitable work. Beside being made in part a test of the child's understanding of an author's meaning, it is without a superior as a disciplinary study in our grammar schools.

The study called analysis and diagraming, however, is apt to fall into or never rise above mere platitudes and senseless minutiae. There is a set classification for each kind of sentence, a set phraseology to be gone through with, a set label for each element. The most unimportant word has the same lingo connected with it that the most important has. Text books are followed so slavishly that the pupils taught by Mr. A. in one town cannot understand the analysis of those taught by Mr. B. in the town adjoining. Any system of analysis, diagraming or terminology, becomes ridiculous when its *originality* prevents any fair grammarian from understanding it.

Do you imagine that I am drawing from fancy, or assailing a man of straw? I have very recently taken great pains to find out the truth in regard to our school work in English grammar, both from personal observation and from intelligent observers. The following illustrations of analysis are not unusual. This very complicated statement was to be analyzed by a class well advanced in grammar: "They waited two days." The analysis, verbatim, covered more than a half page of foolscap.

In another class the analysis of this sentence, "The longer I waited, the more restless I became," covered an entire page. This was the highest class in a grammar school. I heard a seventh grade class in one of the fine schools of a great city spend thirty minutes on a single analysis of this sentence, "Squeers, arming himself with his cane, led the way across the yard to a door in the rear of the house." I think a boy of almost any age could understand the force of that sentence. The class got about three-fourths through the lesson in the half hour and the teacher and principal seemed well satisfied.

A verbatim report of the analysis covered two and one-half pages of foolscap, and I know that the scholars in my own school couldn't tell whether it was right or wrong. From a recently published grammar I copied a model for analysis for grammar school pupils. The sentence contained just two lines of Anglo-Saxon words. The analysis closely written covered three pages of foolscap. Not one of these sentences was above the comprehension of a child six years of age. There was nothing in any sentence to call for even a difference of opinion as to meaning. From another modern grammar was copied this classification of a sentence:

"His refusing to apologize was proof that an insult was intended."
 "This sentence is complicate, simple, co-mixed, secondary, copulative, neuter, affirmative, positive, indicative." Ery, eryl, ickory, Ann, filisy, folisy, Nicholas, John.

I may be accused of caricaturing this part of my subject. I claim that it is beyond the power of any human being to caricature it.

I wish I could convey to your minds, as clearly as they are in my own, two pictures of two grammar lessons. Each was conducted within a very few weeks by a teacher of marked ability and fine reputation. The first was in a normal school with a class of thirty young men and women, varying from sixteen to twenty years of age. They were earnest and faithful, as normal students always are, and possessed fine ability too. They were analyzing simple, detached sentences found in a grammar. Every sentence was analyzed just like every other. For instance:

"A small boy saw a large dog." "This is a proposition; it is the combination of a subject and predicate." "It is the expression of a thought in words; therefore it is a sentence." "It is a simple sentence; it contains but one proposition." "It is a declarative sentence; it asserts or declares something." Without one word of variation, this rigmarole was gone through with just as many times as there were sentences. How do you think it sounded from the mouths of men and women?

The analysis was of the same sort as the prelude, abounding in absurd minutiae and repetition. There was no interchange of opinion, although there *was* attention. Such work does not rouse opinion. These pupils are to teach and carry the same sort of work among the children of country schools, with the prestige of a great normal school to back them. At the same time, no more than one-half of these same young men and women could write a respectable English composition.

The other exercise to which I referred was conducted by a lady teacher with a class of eighty pupils, in the highest grade of a grammar school. The study was on our old school-boy favorite, "Marco Bozzaris." The thought and meaning of the author, the force of his words as used, his beauty of expression; all in connection with the grammatical relation of elements wherever there might be a difference of opinion on that relation, called forth sharp discussion, criticism, and terse expression of thought.

Every one of the eighty young minds seemed on the alert during the entire hour, and at its close I reluctantly left the room feeling strengthened as if by an elixir. I thank heaven that there is here and there such a teacher. Then there is such difference of opinion on so many of these grammatical points, and the opinion is as firm and immovable as the everlasting hills. They are like points of theology, you know; stronger as they become *non-essential*, or *nonsensical*.

A superintendent said to me not long ago, "Every predicate has a copula and an attribute; the verb 'be' is found in every verb in the English language."

It was said with such a "shtep-on-me-coat-tail" air that I meekly assented. I saw the same thing in a recently published grammar, with the

somewhat extraordinary statement that "Snow falls" is an equivalent statement to "Snow is falling." So when an order is given "Halt!" it is equivalent to "Be halting," or, as Pat would have it, "Be after halting!"

I recently noticed in an educational journal a long article in which somebody takes to task Reed and Kellogg's parsing of "waiting" in the obscure construction "He kept me waiting." The discussion covered five or six pages of foolscap. The idiom is at the command of every three-year-old not an idiot.

Go on with your learned and hair-splitting discussions my friends, but do not dwarf the energies and waste the time of the children. Who cares whether a *sentence* is co-mixed and secondary or not. The all-important question is, are the children?

The verb "*be*" is entitled to profound respect, but life is too short to try to squeeze it out of every other verb. I suppose good old Prof. Greene was responsible for that piece of nonsense, as also for much other connected with analysis. I have been informed that he repented the error before his death. "Alas! the evil that men do lives after them!"

Now from our school work, what results do we find so far as ability to use English is concerned? Just what we might fairly expect.

Calling the first four years of school primary, the second four grammar, and the third four high school, and taking the simple writing of a letter as a test of those who finish these schools, from the primary the result will be almost nothing, from the grammar very bad, from the high school only fairly good.

So far as the use of English is concerned the graduates of our grammar schools are a disgrace to the teachers of this country. The matter cannot be overstated. Not more than half of the teachers of the country do use good language, and a large proportion of these cannot. Let whoever doubts the truth of this statement visit teachers' institutes.

Only two years ago in certain institutes quite up to the average, I called for the writing of a few sentences involving nothing more difficult than the use of singular and plural nouns and pronouns, a few very common irregular verbs, and first reader punctuation. The sentences were identically those given a few weeks before to children passing from second to third reader. The results from the adults were shocking, not nearly so good as from the children. And why?

The children had had careful drill for a year and a half in speaking and writing correctly their own childish thoughts. The teachers had never had careful drill in *correctly expressing anything*. They had studied grammar, however, from four to eight years each; and we had a most interesting time in telling our experiences. They could parse and analyze fairly well, and could use diacritical marks; but they could not correctly

write second reader sentences; and it was no fault of their own. They were faithful, earnest, and honest men and women.

A prominent teacher said to me recently, "When in college, I used to write the letters of application for winter schools for most of my classmates who were studying Latin and Greek. I had been clerk in a store for several years, and there had learned to write respectable English."

I am not making this confession especially for the West. The schools of New England, whose public schools were her boast before this great commonwealth and beautiful city were born, in the matter of English instruction are but little in advance of our own. The simple tests in language given by Mr. Walton, and others, to schools in Massachusetts show lamentable ignorance, on the part of children nearly fourteen years of age. These results are much the same throughout the Northern States, taking a commonwealth as a unit. Isn't it fair, fellow teachers, to conclude that there is something wrong in our common school instruction? That, as Prof. Whitney says, we have been looking for certain returns from a source that cannot possibly give them.

It would be a low standard to say that the average pupil who leaves the grammar schools shall use good English; but it would be infinitely higher than we have now. Let us gird our loins and remove one reproach at least from our common school system.

Language instruction is peculiarly suited to the primary school. The first few years of a child's life are the most impressible, and his constant effort is to gain means of expression. The six years usually spent before entering school are not idle ones by any means. Under the guidance of those most consummate teachers, the mothers, the little ones have learned name words, quality words, action words, and enough of syntax so that these words are joined into sentences. They have learned about things being in contact with them. Under the mother's teaching the name of object or quality is given only after a direct appeal to the child's senses, when all his interest is aroused. The name of an action is given only as the action is performed. *She* never attempts to teach anything except when the child's best emotions are aroused and he is happy. Every new thing learned is chattered about from morning until night, ever to the kind and patient response of the teacher that God has provided. There is no method in the chatter, nor in the teaching of the mother, from the school-master's standpoint. *She* passes rapidly from object to object — too rapidly for anything like systematic instruction.

Still the child learns wonderfully, if not very thoroughly. In his teaching, thus far, there have been great tact, great patience, and much repetition; on his own part ceaseless questions and never-dying interest.

With his stock of crude material he comes to school. This is the great event of his life. Even the necessary repression of the school-room

is a wonderful change to him, but the over-disciplined school, together with the forced and artificial way in which we go about our teaching, too often seem to change the entire nature of children. How they ask about everything out of school! How they almost never ask about anything in school! Of course the aggregating of so many children together, necessitates something of a change, but no barrier must be allowed to grow up between the teacher and the children. A feeling of freedom on their part must be secured and maintained. Take what the children already have acquired as the basis on which to build, pursue somewhat the method of the mother, and there will be no trouble.

Nothing so delights the child as the consciousness that he *knows* something about any topic presented by the teacher. This knowledge he will express as soon as his shyness is overcome and his interest aroused. Toys, dolls, kittens, canary birds, pictures, and little children work together in wonderful harmony. With what feelings of strange curiosity and delight they see these things produced in the school-room; and find out that those objects of never-failing interest to them, their own play-things, may also come to school.

Confidence caused by a feeling of security in the friendship of the teacher, and by the fact that there is no abrupt transition from the ease of his home surroundings, will cause the child to talk. This is all essential in connection with his first teaching, and language lessons should begin at once.

The language which the children use has been learned from a hundred different sources, some of them pure, and some of them impure. They have a stock of several hundred words; some of them they pronounce correctly, and some they do not. These words they have formed into sentences for years, according to their own sweet wills. They have at hand, and are constantly using, almost every construction, or misconstruction in the language. *Expression* of want or emotion has received all assistance possible; *correct* expression very little or none.

This out-of-school practice must be counteracted in school if at all; and here is the problem to be solved. Many systems of language lessons have been proposed; many books made for the use of children. "The text-book is indeed the first danger that is to be guarded against. It is the rock on which the whole scheme is liable to be wrecked."

Much the same interest has been aroused in the subject, that object lessons received twenty-five years ago, and there is great danger that the same result will follow.

State Supt. Raab, of Illinois, gives a reason for the failure as follows: "Most of the books on object lessons were undoubtedly written by competent men; but they were slavishly followed *verbatim et literatim* in the school-room. Every object was discussed by set questions, and the whole

subject drifted into mere formalism. So also text-books on Language Teaching have been written by competent teachers; and by putting these books into the hands of children, and teaching them 'to talk' from them, we expect them to acquire language. This is simply impossible with a subject so varied as this, in which there is so constant need of illustration. The basis of all proficiency in oral or written expression is the living word; the free and easy conversation between teacher and pupil. All progressive teachers are agreed on this subject, although not all are successful in these exercises."

For my own part I do not believe any successful text-book on this subject possible for little children — unless, perchance, it were a book filled with bright pictures, without a word in it.

If children talk correctly they will write correctly, when they know how to spell. The converse of this proposition is not true by any means. Hence the first lessons, and these when the children enter school, should be in talking. The plan of the teacher must be clear in her own mind and well arranged. There should be a definite line of instruction so far as liability to error in speech is concerned.

Recollect that perfect freedom on the part of the children is the "*sine qua non*" in language exercises, and until this is secured, little heed should be paid to the manner of speech, except that it be understood by all. To know what kind of talk should be sought, if there are no children in your own homes, go to those of your pupils and hear them talk to their mothers about toys or pictures. Also note the manner and style of speech of the mother lest your own formality and teacherishness may extinguish all interest on the part of the children. Great teachers, as well as small, may note this advice. I shall long remember the sort of stunned look that came to the faces of a grammar school class recently as a very learned educator talked to them about "ratiocination."

The English constructions most violated will appear in the speech of the children. These will vary with different classes, and so should the instruction.

In describing toys and other objects judiciously selected, not omitting the children's pets, the absolutely correct use of the indefinite articles may be easily secured, provided that the teacher so guides the conversation that they shall recur with great frequency. There are a few nouns whose plurals are irregularly formed. All others the children use as correctly as does the teacher.

The few about whose use there is any trouble may be selected and the correct forms secured by having more than one object of a kind at hand. When it is not feasible to have the objects, pictures will answer quite well.

The use of *this* and *that*, and of their plurals, is a very important topic. In conversation it involves the plural formation of nouns, the

change in form of verbs and personal pronouns, to say nothing of the position of the objects of conversation. The constant change which the use of the words suggests holds attention and interest, and easily and naturally children in the first reader become perfect masters of them, and of their influence upon sentences.

Let me be understood right here. The greatest study of the teacher should be to arouse the thought of the child, to train him to quickly grasp any situation, to observe closely what is brought to his attention. Then he is to express his thought in language. In order to obtain the construction which she wishes to impress, she does not ask for the use of *this* word, or *that* word; but she so environs the child that he shall produce those constructions naturally in expressing his thought.

It is nonsense to say that he will produce them *unconsciously*—children know when teachers are doing *something* quite as well as when they are doing *nothing*; and it is *desirable* that they know what they are learning. They will learn to use troublesome constructions *by using them*, and they can do it in no other way.

There is nothing else that children like so much as physical action. In the description of such action may be secured the correct use of adverbs of manner, or adverbs so largely formed from adjectives. The use of other adverbs is attended with no difficulty; and if the time given to *labelling them*, were spent upon the use of *these*, good English would gain greatly.

A careful count of all errors of speech among children for a given time, would show the occurrence of about one-half of them in the use of the verb *be*. This is not a random statement. The conversations to which I have alluded will afford infinite practice in this troublesome verb, and go far to establish its correct use. Then come the other irregular verbs, for which the old grammarians had so great respect as to call them "strong verbs:" some of them might well be called "tough verbs."

To what endless errors do they give rise! By judiciously selecting those in most common use and so arranging conversational lessons, that the verb selected shall play an important part, correctness may at least be approximated with the children. With many of the verbs the practice in school should be very extensive, as the home influence is entirely in the wrong direction.

It will be unnecessary to mention other points involving English constructions. All common errors of speech may be classified under comparatively few heads, and during the four years of school, these may all be carefully presented by the teacher.

The correction of false syntax by the children will help to attune their ears aright; a discord in speech should strike like a discord in music, and for the same reason. This false syntax, however, should be such as presents itself unbidden in conversations and recitations.

None of it should be lugged in by the teacher. Its use should appear accidental and the repair applied as soon as possible.

This leads me to notice something that I have lately seen in several rather respectable journals of education, stamped with the especial approval of the editors. They have published long lists of sentences containing false syntax with the recommendation that they be written on the blackboard for the inspection of children. Thus contaminate the sense of sight as well as that of hearing.

Would you furnish foul air for children in order to show them the desirableness of good ventilation? Would you lie to them in order to show the beauty of truthfulness? Must you bring them into contact with dirt and filth in order to teach cleanliness?

Thus before the age for studying grammar, children should *know* and *use* correct constructions. In any direct instruction in this subject, the sentence is the unit as it is the expression of one complete thought; and of course sentence-making is the immediate aim. This is true in learning the use of *any* language.

The teacher who stops here, however, will leave her work only begun, and the impression she makes will very likely be transitory. Even the youngest children in school should be trained in composition—first, oral, then written.

The oral compositions at the homes are something marvellous in quantity and in quality. How stories and descriptions struggle to find expression for the eager interest of the children. By securing this oral composition in the school-room and so directing it as to apply gently a principle of rhetoric here and there, the way may be readily prepared for written composition. This should begin as soon as the child can write with readiness—not later than with second reader. Nothing is more surprising than that teachers will still persist in teaching children to print. Just as soon as they *can* print they stop it and never take it up again. The first few months should secure to the child the ability to copy in script, sentences from his reading-book, or from the blackboard.

This copying when well managed is a powerful factor in language teaching, aside from its being the very *best* means of teaching orthography. The forms of words, their meaning as used, correct constructions, use of capitals, and punctuation are all gradually impressed upon the child as he carefully copies well-formed sentences.

Written composition, once begun, should continue as long as the child attends school. "Talking with the pencil" is the pleasant name which Col. Parker gives the exercise. I would have it *every day* until the third reader is completed, and as often thereafter as an increasing number and difficulty of studies will permit. Conversational drill upon special constructions, as already indicated, should be kept up parallel with composition writing. This

will secure something like correctness in both oral and written use of English, and, so far as I know, nothing else will. Undoubtedly the perceptive faculties are the first to be trained. Hence the child must be taught or led to observe, and then to use language to express the thought. The dealing with the reasoning faculties comes later. "How shall I be able to awaken and stimulate thought?" should be the prompting question in arranging the details of any plan for composition.

With little children, observation, memory, and imagination play the important *roles*, and in order to cultivate the second, close attention is indispensable. It should at first be taxed for very brief spaces of time. The description of familiar objects, and of pictures, the narrating of personal experiences, the reproduction of stories heard or read, and the production of stories which the imagination gets from pictures, are suggestive of the work that may be done. Letter writing should receive very early attention, as it is the only written composition that ninety-nine hundredths ever indulge in after they leave school. What more desirable accomplishment than to be able to write a good letter? Children who finish primary grades, or the first four years, should be able to do far better in this matter than can now the children who leave the grammar schools. The letters of the latter should be well nigh faultless.

From the time the child enters school his manner of speaking words should receive careful attention. I refer to careful enunciation and correct pronunciation. Habits of indistinctness are frequently the result of timidity—so painful in a primary school; occasionally they are the results of pure laziness; often there is sufficient noise and energy, but no exactness; with foreigners difficulties are peculiar to each nationality. The multiplicity of troubles makes any one specific impossible. Quite as many teachers fail in finding out the trouble, as in applying the remedy. Distinct enunciation should be secured in the primary school at whatever cost of time, study, and patience. The battle once fought out, will be fought out for all time; and economy says, "the earlier the better." Short general exercises in the pronunciation of lists of words whose use is familiar to the children, only four or five at a time, will produce great results. The words should be those liable to mispronunciation, and the exercise not to exceed five minutes in length. All the difficult words in their vocabulary, with sufficient repetition to thoroughly impress them, will require but a few months.

The most delightful language exercises that I have ever heard, have been drills upon the new words of reading-lessons, preliminary to any attempt to read. Recognition at sight, pronunciation, enunciation, and *use* of words were the features of the exercises, as the new words were transferred to the blackboard from the sentences of the children. Like a bright vision lingers in my memory one such reading exercise heard several years

ago in Quincy, Mass. Every reading-lesson should form a subject for conversation, especially with little children. The fact that the conversation is sure to come will fix the attention of the children, and they will gain from the lesson whatever of information there is in it. This sort of exercise will be far more profitable when primary reading books are written about *something*, instead of about *nothing*. God speed the day!

The lessons read should often form subjects for composition writing; I say lessons *read*, not repeated from memory. Then we have in connection with reading, awakening of thought, use of words, recognition at sight of new words, intelligent reading, conversation on what has been read, and finally written composition suggested by the lesson. "All in a fifteen minute recitation?" some one will ask. Certainly *not*. The effect of this sort of training is not only immediate but far reaching, as it looks forward to topical recitation in other branches of study. Facility of expression is a powerful aid in acquiring all branches of knowledge. It places text-book question and answer processes at a discount, and also that most fatal of all hindrances to mental development—*memoriter* recitation.

School training should bear largely upon the other studies pursued. I recollect in one second reader a beautifully written lesson upon the structure and habits of the "fly." None of the stories in the book had half the attraction for the children that this lesson had. They returned to it again and again with the never tiring interest of children, each time having something of their own observation to relate. In a third reader was a somewhat similar lesson about the "cat." I was greatly interested to see how the household pets were investigated, and how with sparkling eyes the children corroborated the statements of the author. There was no trouble about compositions on those subjects. These exercises also do vastly more to instil lessons of human kindness than do long homilies on the subject. I know the sort of reading-lesson to which I refer has been pronounced a failure, but it is because no mind able to produce good literature for the children has written about animals.

What an endless field for reading-lessons is furnished in the study of geography, and what another in history! What other so good time to read of what is grand and sublime in nature, or of what is heroic and noble in the lives of men and women, as in connection with the study of these subjects? Shakespeare and Milton are all well enough but they have no business in our school readers. When the children in our grammar schools can read fluently and intelligently Humboldt's accounts of the Tropical Regions, or Mr. Agassiz's charming description of coral formation, the teacher may consider her work well done, even with no reference to monotone, orotund, or other elocutionary nonsense. Then we have investigation and study—*hard work here*, but not drudgery—class reading and discussion, and composition writing upon each important topic, for

Natural History, Geography, and United States History, beginning in our primary and extending through our grammar schools. How the children broaden under it! Knowing that every considerable topic studied will be a subject to be written about, they will search far and wide for information, and the attention to every reading-lesson will be intense. In the schools of which I speak I very much doubt whether composition writing other than of the nature to which I have referred is either feasible or desirable, and the writing should be mostly if not altogether done in school.

In connection with composition, either oral or written, drawing may be a most powerful auxiliary as an expression of thought. Not long ago I had the pleasure of hearing a third reader class talk about Alaska and its inhabitants. As the children told their stories about houses, boats, sledges, seals, or weapons, they promptly stepped to the board and represented the objects of which they were speaking, and with the same easy confidence. One of them, without hesitation, undertook to delineate an Esquimaux in full dress. I have seen much of the same sort of work and with astonishing results in my own school within the past month. I call it language teaching. You may call it geography, drawing, or history if you choose. It is hard to draw the line of distinction. I also believe the training of the hand, other than in drawing, to be in the direct line of language teaching.

The ability to make a thing necessitates the ability to think about it; when it is finished, naturally comes a description of the process. The better it is made, the better will be the thought and the better the description. The more difficult the thing to be accomplished, the greater must be the thought; and the power of expression will be taxed in the same proportion. As regards what he does or makes with his own hands, the interest of the child is always intense. Hence as a powerful means of language development, I include manual training; notably that of the kindergarten. Style of writing as regards unity, symmetry, etc., will of course need attention; but the freedom and originality of the child's expression are of more account during his primary course. Guard against glaring faults of style, keep him within reasonable bounds, and practice will work out his salvation. As he goes on through his grammar and high school course the rhetorical reins should be tightened accordingly.

As a potent means of cultivation in the correct use of language and in freedom and power of expression none other plays so important a part as the reading of good books. Dr. Harris says in a recent article: "There is no other way to gain a command of good language than to become familiar with the best authors." And again, "The habit of reading good literature, it is acknowledged, will soonest develop a command of language. It will not only give a ready understanding of the printed page, but will give a capacity of fluent expression to the pupil." So far as dealing with the children is concerned, here is a fine field for the exercise of common sense.

In several learned discussions on this subject, I have heard but two classes of books mentioned. The *dime novels* were condemned, of course. It is a pity that they and their authors were not all consigned to the nether flames. The books recommended, however, for the children to read were Shakespeare, Milton, Hume, and Gibbon. You might just as well recommend corn-beef and cabbage for infants.

The *essentials* of books for children are purity of thought, purity of language, and matter that has for them an interest. These secured, let them read the books they like best and plenty of them. It would be positive cruelty to a book-loving child, to cut off his supply of story books and force him to read only history and biography. Undoubtedly for some wise purpose God has implanted in every childish bosom a delight in stories, and it is only those who have forgotten their own childhood, or never had any, that cry out against this best of childish desires. A wise teacher will commend the taste and use it for the child's good, in slowly forming a taste for the very best in children's literature. To this end the reading and discussion of some good book may well occupy a small portion of the time each week. When practicable the reading should be done out of school; then an hour's discussion of the portion read each week will form a delightful language lesson, and also lead to the proper reading of books. For the higher grammar grades the cheap publications of standard literature, furnish abundant material within the reach of all. For the middle and lower grades good books in cheap form are harder to find, and the reading may well be done aloud in school hours; although for the purposes of language lessons this is not so good. Such reading of even one good book each term may be of immeasurable benefit to the children. The man who reads and loves good books is certain to become a good citizen.

Shall we not have literature in school for its own sake? Aside from that which directly or indirectly promotes practical use? By all means if the teacher has a genuine love for it. Otherwise she would better let it alone. There is something grotesque mixed with what is painful, in the haggling and stumbling over beautiful gems of English thought by children in the hands of incompetency and ignorance. The teacher who loves and appreciates such gems will introduce them to her pupils, and she will add to their value by selecting such as meet their capacity and needs. With the acquirement of the *use* of language, whatever is *necessary* in technicalities may be gradually introduced and made familiar.

Definitions in grammar, as in other studies, should grow out of the child's thorough understanding of the nature and use of the thing defined. If anything of *rule* is necessary, he should formulate it himself by describing his own constructions. Our school work almost all *has been*, and is from definition and rule to *use*: whereas it ought to be exactly the reverse.

The acquiring of language is one thing and the study of English grammar is another; and it is time that earnest and honest men and women found it out. With all the chaff and rubbish winnowed out of it, when taken at the proper time and in the proper manner, the study of English grammar is a beautiful and helpful one. I believe in it most thoroughly. If I had written this paper expressly for teachers of ungraded schools, it would be exactly what it is now. Your responsibility in this matter is the greater, because you are educating the majority of the children. You have some disadvantages, it is true, but you have to deal with greater earnestness and strength of character, and in most cases you are not borne down by overwhelming numbers.

After all that has been, or that can be said or written on this subject, in any system of language lessons the working out of detail must rest almost entirely with the teacher. If she is equal to this she will succeed. If she is only a slavish copyist, she will fail, of course. The earnest thought of earnest teachers will work out every plan needed and there will be *many best ones*.

The greatest work any man can do is to set men to thinking; and he who sets *teachers* to thinking does the greatest work of all.

Mr. Bright's paper was followed by a discussion in which the following members of the Association participated: Z. Richards, of District of Columbia; Miss Curtiss, of the Kansas City Schools; Mr. Thomas, of Ohio; Mr. Smith, of Missouri; Mr. Cook, of Illinois; Mr. Bell and Miss Thompson, of Davenport, Iowa; Mr. Ford, of Illinois; Mr. Livingston, of Wisconsin; Mr. Barringer, of New Jersey; Col. Parker, of Illinois; W. W. Yates, of Kansas City; Mr. Broughton, of Wisconsin.

The nominating committee reported the following names as officers for the ensuing year:

For *President*—W. N. Barringer, of Newark, N. J.

For *Vice-President*—A. R. Taylor, Emporia, Kansas.

For *Secretary*—Miss Ella Calkins, New York City.

After electing the nominees by a unanimous vote the meeting adjourned.

ELLA CALKINS, *Secretary*.

NORMAL DEPARTMENT.

JULY 16, 1884.

The Normal School section began at 2:30 at the Methodist Church. Vice-President Norton, of San Jose Normal School, California, opened the meeting with prayer. J. N. Wilkinson, of Kansas Normal School, Emporia, was chosen secretary of the meeting. President E. C. Hewett, of the Illinois Normal, gave the opening address as presiding officer. By unanimous vote, this section nominated Principal Boyden, of Bridgewater Normal School, Massachusetts, to continue as its representative in the National Council of Education. The first paper of length was presented by Dr. Hunter, president of the largest normal school in the United States—the Normal College of the city of New York.

For Dr. Hunter's paper see page 238.

PRESIDENT'S ADDRESS.

E. C. HEWETT, LL. D.,

President Illinois State Normal University.

Fellow-workers in Normal Schools: I do not purpose to make a set and formal address on this occasion. Time is very precious here; and I have nothing new to present.

I congratulate you,—congratulate the friends of true education in the whole country, and congratulate myself, on meeting so large a number of the earnest men and women of our land, whose business it is to train its teachers.

The great want of our schools is competent and well-trained teachers, and that is likely to be the great want for years to come. To supply this

want is the only legitimate purpose of normal schools. Hence, questions pertaining to normal schools lie at the foundation of all educational topics.

But, while this is so, there are those who deny even the need of normal schools. Not long since, a legislator in my own State declared that, although normal schools might have been necessary at one time, the necessity existed no longer,—they had fulfilled their function,—we had trained teachers enough now. Wise man! We shall outgrow the need of normal schools when we outgrow the need of cradles and bibs, and not before. It is proper, therefore, that our program should provide, as it does, for the presentation of the theme of the “Necessity for Normal Schools;” and I am sure that the eminent gentleman to whom the topic is assigned will have something to say about it that it will profit all of us to hear.

But no normal school can do good work, unless it founds its methods on a correct knowledge of human nature,—on the laws of mental action and mental growth. Therefore, an able man is to bring before us some of the significant facts of Psychology, and to show their relation to the work of normal schools.

Yet the clearest perception of the necessity for normal schools, joined to the most profound knowledge of the principles that should govern their conduct, is not enough. To give life and power to their work, and to the subsequent work of their students, there needs to be the “fervent spirit” in the teacher, a genuine, well-founded enthusiasm, that shall pervade and vivify all principles and all methods; that shall lubricate all the machinery; that shall lift the worker above the petty annoyances and vexations of his calling; that shall fuse all refractory substances, and blend the teacher’s work into a beautiful, efficient, and life-giving unity.

This essential is not forgotten in our program; and I know that our friend from the Pacific coast [Mr. Norton] has in himself an abundance of that enthusiasm and professional spirit about which he is to discourse to us.

The necessity for our work, the principles that should guide it, and the spirit that should animate it: these topics, and these only, are to claim our consideration at this time.

And I bespeak thoughtful attention to the papers that will be read, and a free and full discussion of the thoughts that will be presented.

Thus, I trust, we may go back to our homes, not only cheered and encouraged by social intercourse with our fellow-workers, but better prepared to do our part well in that work whose importance far transcends that of President-making even, in its effect for good or evil, upon the future prosperity of our beloved country.

NORMAL SCHOOLS: THEIR NECESSITY AND GROWTH.

BY THOMAS HUNTER.

The first immigrants to these shores thought it a sacred duty, amid manifest privations, to make provision for the instruction of their children. Nor was this duty limited to the English-speaking settlers. The Dutch, the Swedes, and the Norwegians manifested a similar desire to diffuse the blessings of education among their people. For a hundred and fifty years prior to the Revolution, the American people had acquired and practised the art of self-government. So that when, by the Declaration of Independence, they discharged their master, George III., and set up for themselves a government of their own, the administration of affairs, civil and military, fell into no feeble hands. On the contrary, it fell into hands of the Titans. It is no exaggeration to say that the common school, established by the first settlers of America, made the Revolution a success and a Republic a necessity.

Universal suffrage without universal education is a delusion and a snare. The ballot and the reading-book should be inseparable; for, of all forms of government under the sun, a republic composed of an ignorant population is the worst and most dangerous. Everywhere in Europe the extension of the franchise has been immediately followed by the diffusion of knowledge. Wherever the people acquire power and a voice in the shaping of their own government, common schools have been established and extended, for the simple reason that an intelligent people is always conservative. It is admitted as a political axiom that, in a republic, the education of the people at public expense is an indispensable necessity. Hence it is that every State of the Union has made itself the public school-master. It is to be regretted, however, that the functions of the office have been, in some instances, but inadequately performed. In order to prove the truth of this statement, the following statistics will be amply sufficient:

In a population of 10,176,198 white persons, between 10 and 20 years of age, both ages included, 962,617, or in round numbers, nearly a million, could not write; of 1,663,972 colored persons, of the same age, 1,072,978 could not write; and including white and colored, in a total of 11,840,170

persons, between the above-mentioned ages, 2,035,595 could not write; or, in other words, 17 per centum of the rising generation, who, in a few years, will control the destinies of the Republic, could not write! In the North and West, the illiterate whites, between the ages of 10 and 20, amount to only $3\frac{1}{4}$ per centum; and the illiterate colored persons, of like age, to 16 1-10 per centum. In the South the illiterate whites, between 10 and 20 years of age, both ages included, amount to 23 9-10 per centum, and the illiterate colored persons, of the same age, to 68 3-10 per centum.* These figures are simply appalling, and demonstrate most conclusively that many of the States have failed to do their duty by the people. Do the well-to-do classes, the great manufacturers, the great railroad kings, the great bankers, ever pause and reflect upon the insecurity of life and property consequent upon allowing such a mass of people to grow up in ignorance, with the power to exercise the right of voting and to shape the policy of the government? When they periodically oppose the secondary schools, from which the great bulk of the teachers are appointed, do they ever think that they are striking at the primary schools and putting a premium upon illiteracy and communism,—nay, upon the very destruction of their own property?

In order to establish an efficient system of public primary schools, it is indispensably necessary to first establish an efficient system of public secondary schools; and the most important of all the secondary schools is the normal school. For generations it has been the custom, to a considerable extent, to waste the public money and private benefactions by placing incompetent and untrained teachers in charge of free or common schools for the poorer classes. These schools can not rise above the level of their teachers. A few figures will show the kind of teachers many of the States are willing to employ. In 1880, the total cost of public education in the United States was \$85,111,442; the number of public school-teachers was 289,159; and the salaries of these teachers amounted to \$55,291,022. The average wages per teacher was \$192 a year, or \$16 a month! It must not be forgotten, however, that the rate of wages is greatly reduced by the employment of thousands of teachers for only three or four months of the year; but, making every allowance for those who teach during a part of the year only, the fact remains that the compensation of teachers is ridiculously low. The average monthly salary of male teachers in the enlightened State of Vermont was, in 1880, \$29.76; of female teachers, \$16.84. In Alabama, for white teachers, \$22.98, and for colored teachers, \$23.15; even in the Empire State, with all its wealth, the average monthly wages for all public school teachers is only \$42.24; and this includes the larger salaries paid in some of the great cities. As the salary is the outward and

*See Gen. Eaton's Report for 1881; the Pacific States and the Territories not included.

visible sign of the importance of an office, from that of the President of the United States down to that of a tide-waiter in the custom-house, it is an easy matter to calculate the degree of dignity that belongs to the office of teacher, and the low estimate placed upon it by the American people. What sort of qualifications, and what kind of service, can be commanded for such wages as have just been mentioned? The present speaker met at a State convention of teachers, held in New York a few years ago, two middle-aged female teachers, whose murder of the English language was perfectly excruciating, who informed him that their wages were respectively \$2.50 and \$3.00 a week! and as he listened to their double negatives to express an affirmative, and other manifestations of utter ignorance, he inwardly confessed that their services were not worth half the money. What a farce to employ such persons as teachers! How or where, or under what circumstances, did they obtain licenses to degrade the teacher's calling? But this is not the worst case: the late President of the Board of Education, the Hon. William Wood, found a public school teacher in the city of New York, about eleven years ago, writing the pronoun I, twice on the blackboard, a small *i* with a dot over it; and when he called her attention to the mistake and had it corrected, such was her inveterate habit of dotting that she placed a dot over the capital. Ignorance among teachers, similar to the cases just mentioned, is by no means rare in the United States. General Eaton, in his report for 1881, says: "The standard of qualifications for teachers appears to be lower in the United States, taken as a whole, than in other countries in which provision has been made for the education of the masses."

Geo. A. Walton, special agent of the Massachusetts Board of Education, uses the following language: "Let all the towns apply 25 per centum more to the wages of teachers and expend the money in securing and retaining the best the market affords; and the schools could be made one-fourth better."

Educators make the mistake of attributing the deficiencies of teachers to the low rate of wages; the converse of this proposition is much nearer the truth: the low rate of wages is caused by the deficiencies of the teachers. Educated and trained teachers are in demand and will generally command high salaries.

The schoolmaster has been an object for scorn and ridicule from time immemorial. Dickens excoriates him in the character of "Squeers," and Scott makes him a creature demanding our pity, in "Dominie Sampson." Adam Clark and Adam Smith were pronounced dull boys by their brilliant schoolmasters. Swift received his degree by special grace, and Goldsmith was pronounced a dunce. Shelley and Byron broke away from the trammels of the schools and educated themselves. Edward Everett graphically describes the schools and schoolmasters of his day in the following extract:

"The school was under Master Little, who, in spite of his name, was a giant in stature,—six feet four at least, and somewhat wedded to the past. He struggled earnestly against the change then taking place in the pronounciation of *u*, and insisted on our saying monooement and natur. . . . As for a blackboard, I never heard of such a thing at school. Geography was taught in that day from very imperfect compends; it was confined to the rehearsal of a few meagre facts in physical geography, and a few barren statistical details which ceased to be true while you were reading them. . . . A globe, I believe, I never saw at a public school near enough to touch it. A large and accurate map was never exhibited in school fifty years ago. . . . Such were the schools; and the school-houses were in keeping with them,—cold in winter, hot in summer, without ventilation, destitute of everything required for accommodation, health, and comfort."

Even in Germany, as late as the close of the last century, we read that ignorant pensioners, ex-common soldiers, and ignorant old women were placed in charge of schools for the so-called lower classes. We read, too, that a Maryland planter advertised for his runaway slave, stating that he was a schoolmaster by trade, and able to teach book-keeping by single entry. In the oldest school in the State of New York, the school of the Dutch Reformed Church, we are told that the first schoolmaster not only taught the boys and girls, but took in washing. But whether this washing was done by himself or his good wife, history fails to record.

It is customary for old men to speak in glowing terms of the great actors, lawyers, physicians, divines, and statesmen who flourished when they were boys; but, with rare exceptions, who has ever heard one of them praise his schoolmaster, except, indeed, to boast of the strength of the right arm that administered severe castigations, frequently undeserved. As a case in point, Anthony Trollope informs us in his autobiography, recently published, that his schoolmaster having first whipped him in the wrong, refused to confess his mistake before the whole school, though he admitted it privately to the boy. Poor Anthony boasts that he was the best flogged boy he ever heard of, having received five castigations on the same day.

Is it any wonder then that the schoolmaster has been ridiculed and held up to the scorn of the world? Is it any wonder that the teacher is worse paid than the mechanic, and scarcely ranks in point of wages with the day laborer? The average compensation of cooks and chamber-maids is greater than that of female teachers. Is there no remedy for this crying evil? Is there no way in which the teacher's calling can be raised to a higher plane? Yes, there is one way, and one way only, and that is by making the vocation of teaching a learned profession. With such a seething mass of illiteracy in the country, and with tens of thousands of unedu-

cated and poorly paid teachers, the urgent necessity for normal schools must be evident to every thoughtful mind, and should occupy the attention of every patriotic statesman.

Facts and figures are stubborn things. Let us examine the statistics and see what report they give concerning professional teaching. In 1881 there were in the United States 113 public normal schools, employing a staff of 979 instructors, and containing 27,685 students, of whom 1,839 engaged in teaching; and also 112 private normal schools, with 594 teachers and 21,020 students, of whom 468 engaged in teaching; that is to say, 2,307 graduates of normal schools recruited the ranks of the great army of 289,159 public-school teachers. We have no data to show the number of vacancies caused every year by death, marriage, or entrance on the duties of some other so-called higher profession. The number must be large. Owing to the fact that so many engage in teaching as a temporary make-shift to make pin-money prior to matrimony, or to use it as a stepping-stone to something that will pay better, it is safe to assert that at least 16 per centum of the public-school teachers leave the profession every year. This is a low estimate; but assuming, for the sake of argument, that 10 per cent., or 28,915 vacancies occur every year, and granting that the 2,307 normal graduates fill these vacancies (which is not at all probable), then for every 100 teachers employed annually, only eight are trained and educated teachers. Fancy eight graduates of medical colleges in every 100 physicians licensed to practise the profession of medicine! Fancy eight graduates of law schools in every 100 lawyers ready to fill a seat on the bench of the supreme court! Who would intrust the life of a child to a medical quack, or his property to a legal "shyster"? And yet the bulk of the people are willing to place the moral and intellectual well-being of millions of children in the hands of untrained teachers. Is the immortal soul of a child of less value than an acre of real estate?

It would be a highly important and interesting fact to ascertain, with a certain degree of accuracy, what per cent. of the great army of public-school teachers have received special training of any kind for the work of instruction. Rhode Island, after careful inquiry, ascertained that of her public-school teachers 4 per cent. had received a collegiate education, 62 per cent. a high-school or academic education, and 21 per cent. normal training, while 13 per cent. had only a common or district-school education. It must be borne in mind that Rhode Island is an old and enlightened State with an excellent normal school; and hence it would hardly be fair to draw inference from these figures and apply them to the whole country. Doubtless, as we reach the States in which illiteracy prevails to a far greater extent, we would find the teachers much inferior in point of education and professional training. It may be perceived, however, from these figures that virtually the superior schools do not furnish teachers:

that the secondary schools furnish 83 per cent., and must always be depended upon to provide instructors for the primary schools; and that over 13 per cent. of the Rhode Island public-school teachers only received a primary education. A little more than one-fifth of her public teachers received professional training.

During the last decade the normal system has been widely extended. In 1872 there were but 98 normal schools, with 773 instructors and 11,778 students; while in 1881, there were 225 of these schools, with 1,573 instructors and 48,705 students. It is gratifying to note that, in spite of all opposition, the system has increased its number of schools more than two-fold, and its number of students more than four-fold. And yet in order to meet the requirements of the public-school system in the United States it ought to be increased fifty-fold.

Great reforms are like oaks, of slow growth. It is now two hundred years since the normal system was founded by the Abbé J. B. de la Salle, at Rhines; but from 1681 until the beginning of the present century it made little headway. In fact, until about forty years ago it made but little impression anywhere, except in some of the States of Germany. Recently it has reached India and Japan, and penetrated into Africa. Strange as it may appear, the erroneous monitorial system of Bell and Lancaster imparted the first great impetus to the normal system in England and America. As empirical astrology paved the way for scientific astronomy, the monitorial system paved the way for scientific teaching. The enthusiasm of Lancaster, the genius of Bell, would have infused life and vigor into the worst system the ingenuity of man ever invented. There is no wish to detract from the honors worthily bestowed on these two pioneers in the cause of common-school education, for their work was honest and their motives pure. They were philanthropists in the largest sense. But when their system fell into weaker hands; when the temporary teachers studying other professions, when the failures in other callings, undertook to carry out the Bell and Lancaster system, it entirely failed. The raw, uneducated, untrained boys and girls from 12 to 14 years of age, who were appointed, as a matter of economy, to assist one man or one woman to instruct a school of 400 children, were generally ridiculous failures. Just think of a green boy of 14 placed in charge of a class of other boys nearly as old as himself, with ample opportunity to exercise petty tyranny, to accept petty bribes, and to wreak his petty vengeance upon all who incurred his displeasure or dislike! And yet this was the system that so delighted George III. that he subscribed £100 annually toward its support; that so recommended itself to Mr. Whitbread that, in a speech in the House of Commons, he hailed it as "the greatest reform that could take place in the kingdom;" that caused Joseph Lancaster to receive an ovation on his lecture tour through the provinces, and to become the welcomed guest of great nobles; and, not satisfied with his

triumphs in the Old World, he crossed the ocean to the New. More fortunate than Alexander, he had a new world to conquer. Hear how the great men of America received him. De Witt Clinton said, "I confess I recognize in Lancaster the benefactor of the human race. . . . I consider his system as creating a new era in education;" President Nott, of Union College, said, "Where is Lancaster, who has introduced and is introducing a new era in education?" and John Adams wrote to a friend in Cambridge, "I have heard friend Lancaster with pleasure; he is an excellent scholastic and academic disciplinarian."

This is but a specimen of the style in which Lancaster was received, and proves conclusively how utterly ignorant at that time the great men of the country were when discussing education as a science. Like many another genius who went up like a rocket and came down like a burnt stick, poor Lancaster outlived his own greatness and came to an untimely end beneath the wheels of a New York omnibus. It is sad to say that, after all the praise heaped upon Lancaster in the early part of his career, he had been anticipated by Dr. Andrew Bell who had learned the monitorial system from a Malabar boy whom he found teaching his playmates to write in the sand. In fact, the system of mutual instruction by children had long previously existed in China and Hindoostan. Pietro della Valle, the celebrated traveller in Turkey, Egypt, Persia, and India, has given an account of it in a work published in 1660 and translated into several European languages. Perhaps it was from him that the good Abbé de la Salle caught the idea of educating and training boys to become teachers. Be that as it may, out of evil good often springs. Thoughtful men in school boards clearly perceived that the monitorial system would work great mischief unless the monitors were educated and trained for their work; and this special training became the nucleus of the normal system. At first its growth was slow and uncertain; it met with much opposition; the universities sneered at it; the wealthy self-made men condemned it, because they could not understand it; and half-educated teachers, fearing competition, denounced it. But in spite of all opposition and many impediments, the little fountain that sprang into existence at Rheims has grown into a mighty river which fertilizes every land through which it flows.

At the foundation of the first normal school in the United States, that established in Plymouth County, Massachusetts, in 1838, the eminent statesman and scholar, President John Quincy Adams, uttered these memorable words: "We see monarchs expending vast sums, establishing normal schools throughout their realms, and sparing no pains to convey knowledge and efficiency to all the children of their poorest subjects. Shall we be outdone by kings? Shall monarchies steal a march on republics in the patronage of that education on which a republic is based?" On the same occasion the great Daniel Webster said, with that comprehensiveness of

grasp for which he was remarkable: "This plan of a normal school for Plymouth County is designed to elevate our common schools, and thus carry out the noble ideas of our Pilgrim Fathers. . . . Now if normal schools are to teach teachers, they enlist this interest on the right side; they make parents and all who any way influence childhood competent for their high office. . . . If it is an experiment, it is a noble one and should be tried."

There is a relation between political affairs and educational progress which should not be overlooked. The great French Revolution that destroyed forever the "Divine right" of kings to oppress their people, destroyed a still more dangerous right, the right of kings to keep their people in ignorance. Just as soon as Napoleon could procure a momentary cessation of the wars waged by the allied despots to restore the Bourbon to the throne of France, he set to work to establish a system of education, which, as he afterward stated, when a prisoner on the Island of St. Helena, would have made every French mechanic an artisan, and every artisan an artist. Let us quote the words of this great genius: "Only those who seek to deceive the people and rule for their own advantage, wish to keep them in ignorance. . . . There can be no stable political state if there be not a corps of instruction with settled principles." Napoleon here enunciates the great political and social truth that no system of public instruction can ever be successful without a corps of educated and trained teachers; and in order to carry out his great scheme of public education, in 1802 he divided the institutions of instruction into three classes: first, the municipal or primary schools, of which there were to be 23,660; second, the secondary schools or communal colleges; third, the lyceums and special schools maintained at the expense of the public treasury. He founded special military and naval schools, and two practical schools of mines. He developed the great polytechnic school which has been founded by the Directory, and the greater Normal School planned under the convention. This Normal School received its beneficial settlement and establishment under his fostering care.

What signifies the opposition of small politicians to the normal system, when we know that it has received the sanction and support of statesmen like John Quincy Adams, Webster, and Napoleon? It may be said with truth that all your normal-school graduates are not successful teachers; but this is a lame argument against normal training; for it can be asserted with equal truth that all the graduates of medical schools are not successful physicians; nor all the graduates of law schools successful lawyers. Any argument against normal school training can be brought to bear with equal force against any technical training whatever, civil or military, mechanical or artistic.

While the normal schools have achieved a great reform in methods of teaching and school government, it must be frankly admitted that they are by no means perfect, and that they themselves are, in some instances, sadly in need of information. It is said of Peter the Great, that while he civilized his people, he himself lived and died a barbarian. Let no similar charge be brought against the normal system. Against some of the normal schools there has been, to some extent, just cause for complaint; and the charges made by the enemies of the system, as well as the criticisms made by its friends, should be boldly met and carefully examined. If found fair and just, the remedy should be fearlessly applied. It has been asserted by both friends and foes that there is a tendency in some of the normal schools to make machine teachers, to ride certain hobbies to death, and to permit too much practice teaching on a slender basis of education. If such be the case, if half-educated persons skim lightly over an extensive course of pure mathematics and natural science, Latin and psychology, to say nothing of the review of elementary branches, in a year or two, and at the same time spend a portion of their time in the training school, what can be expected but that a normal school so conducted will turn out inflexible machine teachers, who will teach nothing but barren formulas, and utterly fail to comprehend the underlying principles? The trained faculty, indispensable to the apprentice-teacher, is here wanting; and trained faculty means simply a good education. Until this truth,—that the proper foundation of good teaching is a good education,—is admitted and acted upon, the normal system will be liable to periodic attacks from its enemies. Of the two,—a superior education with limited practice, or much practice with inferior education, the former is preferable; for, to say the least, a cultivated mind will be brought to bear on the work of instruction.

The man of one idea is always to be feared. The man who fancies that the universe turns on object-teaching or map-drawing in the sand, or moulding objects out of clay, is very apt to neglect a dozen other subjects equally important, and to turn out teachers but poorly equipped to reflect credit on the normal system. Object-teaching for the purpose of cultivating perception is an excellent thing; map-drawing and modelling are very useful to teach the child to use his hands; but when these things are carried to excess, how much better are the teachers who ride them as hobbies, than the teachers of the old school, who thought that all human culture was comprised in declining Latin nouns and conjugating Greek verbs? These are some of the evils of the system, which time and a greater grasp of the subject will remove.

Let us see the good that the normal system has achieved. It may be safely asserted that normal teachers throughout the world have united,—and remember this is no small gain,—on the following principles of education:

First: A knowledge of physiology and psychology is necessary as a basis for scientific teaching.

Second: There is an order in which the mental faculties should be developed, and that special subjects of study should be used to train special faculties.

Third: Activity, physical, mental, and moral, is the law of the child's being.

Fourth: the idea should precede the word; the concrete, the abstract. We proceed by easy steps from the known to the unknown.

It may be asserted that the other principles of education are but corollaries of these. If the normal system had done nothing more than give vitality and currency to these great principles, it would have repaid a hundred-fold the cost of its establishment. But it has done much more. The necessary knowledge of physiology has compelled the normal graduate to make allowance for physical weakness, to utilize physical activity, and to guard against uncleanness and a vitiated atmosphere. It has given an impetus never known before to gymnastics and calisthenic exercises as means of preserving human health. The study of psychology has caused the normal graduate to recognize the fact that one child differs from another child, as one star differs from another star in glory,—that one child may be dull and another intelligent, that one may be indolent and another active, and that the children can no more help their mental and physical condition than they can help the color of their hair or the form of their faces; so that no normally trained teacher will punish a child for being stupid, as God made him, as was done most liberally in the “good old times,” when thrashing was the panacea for every physical defect and every intellectual shortcoming. The normal system has been the means of introducing better methods of teaching and better management of schools; but it has done something even higher and holier,—it has done more than all else combined to introduce humanity and happiness into the work of instruction instead of the brutality and misery that prevailed when many of us were boys.

We read of light-houses built far out at sea on wave-washed rocks, where the workmen toil with life preservers about their bodies, death staring them in the face,—where labor is possible but a few days during the summer,—where years are required to drill the holes by which to fasten the foundation-stones. But in spite of wind and wave the massive edifices have been erected; and their beacon-lights have warned many a stately ship and saved many a precious life. Thus have the educational light-houses, the normal schools, been established; and, although lashed by the storms of prejudice and beaten by the waves of ignorance, the powers of darkness can not now prevail against them.

DISCUSSION OF DR. HUNTER'S PAPER.

The discussion of Dr. Hunter's paper was opened by President Baldwin, of the Sam Houston normal school, Texas. The normal schools are a necessity of the new education. While it was believed that anybody could teach school, there was no need of normal instruction. The fact that every educational state of the world has established normal schools shows how wide-spread is the new education. The tendency of the normal school is to produce a class of artists. The grandest of the arts is the development of the infant mind. From these thoughts need not be argued the importance of the normal schools nor the necessity of making them as efficient as possible.

PRESIDENT HEWETT suggested that all present are sufficiently convinced of the importance of normal schools, but we should do most effectual service by suggesting how to make the public see what is so clear to us.

JEROME ALLEN, of St. Cloud normal, Minnesota, suggested that a very important work for normal workers is to educate the people as to what good teaching is.

PROF. WILLET, of Cincinnati, thinks the normal schools have not had the courage of their convictions. They have graduated persons unfit for teaching. His school graduated thirteen this year, twenty-five per cent. of whom should have been dropped before they reach graduation.

PRINCIPAL ROUNDS, of New Hampshire, suggested that time be limited so as many as possible may be heard.

PRINCIPAL GILCHRIST, of Iowa normal school, Cedar Falls, knows that a larger per cent. of normally prepared teachers than of others succeed.

DR. ALLYN, of southern Illinois normal school, finds much opposition from professional men who were not educated for their professions, and from teachers without special training who find their positions liable to be lost.

PROF. ALBEE, of Oshkosh normal, regrets the shortness of the teacher's career. He believes the normal teachers will remain much longer in the work.

PROF. NORTON, of California, thinks normal schools have provoked hostility by seeming to rival other schools in furnishing an education that prepares for other professions.

GEORGE L. OSBORN, of Missouri, reports that they are criticised because their pupils crowd out the old-time teacher.

PRESIDENT HEWETT reports that most of their graduates distinguish themselves. In the classes of 1860 and 1861, half the living male members are here to-day in this city, and they all stand high in the profession.

PROF. PAYNE, of the department of pedagogics in Michigan university, presented a paper on Psychology as Related to Teaching.

SOME APPLICATIONS OF PSYCHOLOGY TO THE ART OF TEACHING.

BY PROF. W. H. PAYNE, *University of Michigan.*

The latest contribution to the psychology of teaching is a volume of about seven hundred octavo pages ; and it is with a feeling akin to consternation that I think of an attempt even to talk about this subject within the compass of half an hour. The most that I can hope to do is to present an imperfect syllabus of one phase of this vast subject.

By reason of the limitation of time, my treatment will be so summary as to seem, I fear, dogmatic. I can do little more than state some of the results of my reading and thinking, in connection with the more obvious applications to practice. To give some degree of unity to my essay, I have selected one characteristic phase of the subject, and under this I have stated a number of its principal implications. In the selection of matter, my purpose has been to present truths that have a very direct bearing on the art of teaching,—*fruitful* truths, as Mr. Bain would say. My hearers will discover that I have left whole fields of valuable truth untouched. But this is my misfortune, not my fault.

There is the same reason why the professional teacher should have an articulate knowledge of psychology, as there is that the professional physician should be well versed in physiology.

The physician needs to know the structure of the human body and the mode of its organic activities, in order that he may adapt means to ends ; for skill in an art consists in this deft adaptation. The teacher's art is addressed primarily and principally to the mind ; and, if this art is to be rational, the teacher must know the structure of this organism, and the mode of its organic activities. This knowledge of psychology is professional knowledge strictly so-called ; *i. e.*, the knowledge that chiefly differentiates the teacher from the scholar.

The most instructive of the general characteristics of mind is its self-activity in the line of growth.

This conception has the following implications :

1. There must be a supply of something in the nature of aliment that can employ these activities and thus sustain this growth. In other words,

there must be something upon which the organism can react in such a way that growth may take place through a process of elaboration and assimilation. The most general name for this aliment is knowledge.

2. The elaborating instrument is primarily automatic, and has uniform and predetermined modes of activity; and in this functional activity there is absolute continuity from infancy to maturity. In other words, the functional activity of the mind is the same whether in the child or the man; just as the functional activity of the stomach is the same in both cases. In both departments of growth, the organism may react on one kind of aliment and not on another; but if there is reaction at all, it is uniform in its mode.

3. The kind of growth will depend chiefly on two things: (1) The state of the elaborating organism, as weak or strong; and (2) the kind of aliment that is assimilated. There are innate differences in mental constitution that determine some differences in the results of growth. That marked differences in mental regimen will produce variations in growth, is a fact too obvious to require comment.

4. As the mind is constitutionally automatic, mental growth is mainly unconscious; the rule being, that when aliment is supplied at the right time, in the right form, and in due quantity, its elaboration will proceed without further assistance.

5. The automatic action of the mind whereby it reacts upon aliment may be stimulated and directed by deliberate purpose. Thus a pupil's mental growth may be purely spontaneous or fortuitous, or he may determine that he will think on a given subject for a given purpose, or his teacher may determine the purpose and the subject, and then *provoke* the process of thought by some form of stimulation. The normal stimulant for this specific purpose, is a question. Such a question is a demand on the pupil's resources, and the effort to supply this demand determines some mode of mental activity.

6. The elaboration of aliment implies some loss of identity. The original presentations may disappear as such, but will reappear in some higher form. The highest form of this reappearance is opinion, belief, character, common sense, faculty, power. A presentation has served no high purpose if it has not suffered some degree of transformation. In many cases, the presentation may have served its high purpose, and then have absolutely disappeared. In this region we find the uses of forgotten knowledge.

7. Time is an all-essential element in mental growth. There may not only be a long interval between the reception of a presentation and its elaboration into a higher form, but the progressive steps in this transformation are indeterminate, and so involve indeterminate amounts of time.

8. The distribution of aliment is subject to the following law: The faculty that is strongest, or that needs the least, will appropriate the most; while the faculty that is weakest, or that needs the most, will appropriate the least. In other words, the strong faculties will grow stronger, and the weak, weaker. If the purpose is to promote a symmetrical growth, aliment must, by some means, be diverted into these unaccustomed channels. The only mode of doing this is by calling the weak faculties into use. Exercise will determine a flow of aliment, nurture will give new strength, strength will permit facility, facility will make exercise agreeable; and so, by means of reactions and interactions, there is a virtual re-creation of faculty; or, power *in esse* has been evolved out of power *in posse*.

Along with this promotion of symmetry by excitation, there should go some clipping of an exuberant faculty, by holding it in abeyance. The partial disuse of such a faculty will leave some energy unemployed, and this can be transferred to the account of a weaker member.

Distaste for a study generally indicates a loss of tone in some part of the mental organism; and instead of this being a valid plea for an excuse from the subject, it is rather to be regarded as an argument for its pursuit. There is, at least, this element of truth in the ascetic belief in disagreeable studies.

On the contrary, with the purpose of symmetrical culture still in mind, the fact that a pursuit is very easy, or very agreeable, may be a reason why it ought to be discouraged. When the period of general training is past, there is no doubt that pursuits should lie in the lines of one's predilections.

9. The second condition of growth—aliment being the first—is *exercise*. Two general modes of mental activity should be distinguished. First, there is the mental act whereby knowledge is gained, and then the subsequent act by which it is applied to use. Absolutely speaking, the mind is never passive, for activity is one of the essential marks of mind. States of suffering are states of intensest activity. Even when the process of learning is most mechanical, there must be some kind and degree of mental reaction, otherwise acquisition would be impossible. But during all processes of instruction, the mind must constantly react on the presentations made to it, and this reaction is the first mode of mental exercise. So far, we may say that the process of alimentation is itself a disciplinary process, that the mind is formed while being informed. So far as I am able to see, the precept, "first form the mind, then furnish it," is an absurdity, an impossibility. The true conception is, that the mind is formed while being furnished.

The second mode of mental exercise consists in the use of the knowledge that has been acquired, or in the application of knowledge to the production of some determined result. These two phases of exercise may

be distinguished in memory and recollection, in the reproductive and the constructive imagination, in the learning of a mathematical truth and its application to use, etc.

10. We must distinguish accumulation from organization ; that is, the acquisition of material from its elaboration into structure, faculty, and power. It is customary to state this distinction as that between growth and development ; but I am unable to conceive of development except as a mode or a higher form of growth. The facts in the case seem to be these : (1) The materials of thought may be collected in advance of their actual transformation into thought ; and (2) this transformation is a process of infinite gradations. But it may be described as a progress from vagueness to definitude, or from a low type of organization to progressively higher types of organization. "When I was a child," says Paul, "I thought as a child, I spake as a child, I understood as a child ; but when I became a man, I put away childish things. For now (in infancy and here) we see through a glass darkly ; but then (in maturity and in the hereafter) face to face."

These facts should guard us against two false assumptions : (1) That accumulation and elaboration should proceed *pari passu* ; and (2) that a child's knowledge should necessarily be clear and definite. On the contrary, the indications are that accumulation may precede elaboration by an indefinite period ; that the necessary gaining of material is *pro tanto* antagonistic to transformation ; and that the normal state of a child's knowledge is that of confusion, vagueness, and indefiniteness. The conception of mind as a growth makes this a fundamental principle of instruction : There should be a gradual evolution of definitude out of confusion.

11. The fact that material must be collected somewhat in advance of its transformation, clearly points out one of the functions of memory, and settles a disputed question in practical teaching, viz., whether one may memorize what may not at the time be understood. From the view of the mental processes that has been stated, it follows that the crude material of thought should be held, so to speak, in store ; and this holding in store is the primary function of memory. It follows further, from this conception, that matter not only *may*, but *must* be memorized before it is understood ; for the understanding of a thing is synonymous with its elaboration, or its transformation. For truth's sake, it is necessary to distinguish memory before elaboration from memory after elaboration. We must memorize in order that we may understand, and then hold in memory what we have understood. The only real question at issue is whether memorizing should be formal or informal. As formal memorizing favors clear representation, it is worthy of much more respect than is now paid it.

12. The normal mode of the mind's reaction upon its material, is first by resolution or disintegration, and then by re-construction or re-in-

tegration. The normal mode of progress is from apprehension to comprehension, from confused aggregates to articulate wholes; and the normal process is analysis complemented by a reciprocal synthesis. This doctrine is opposed to the current assumption that a child's knowledge should, in the first instance, be built up constructively out of elements supplied by the teacher. The true conception is, that the mind is to find elements by the disintegration of some aggregate, and then is to re-construct a new whole out of the parts of this dismembered aggregate; and that this disintegration and re-integration constitute thought proper.

13. The material that serves for the mind's reactions may be presented to it immediately or mediately, that is, it may be intuitive or representative, presented without the mediation of language or with such mediation. All knowledge of the past is impossible save through the mediation of symbols; knowledge of the remote and the inaccessible is impracticable save through such mediation; and through the limitation of time, very much that is near must be made known by representation. As a consequence of the division of labor, and as a condition of progress, knowledge at first hand must stand to knowledge at second hand as a part to a constantly and rapidly increasing whole.

An intuitive presentation is concrete in the strict and limiting sense of that term; it is a congeries of many parts or qualities, a complex thing appealing directly to the senses; and if the mind reacts upon it, it must be in the way of discrimination or analysis; it cannot be brought into relation with other knowledge, cannot be assimilated or organized without a discovery of its marks or qualities. Such discovery is always analytical.

Compared with an intuitive presentation, a representative presentation, or one made by means of symbols, is always abstract; for language always employs general terms. Strictly speaking, therefore, purely concrete instruction is impossible; but by general consent, statements that refer to an individual thing and that make a direct appeal to sense, are called concrete; while statements referring to a class, and making no direct appeal to sense, are called abstract. Strictly speaking, there is no absolute line between concrete and abstract instruction; but, in general, the degree of concreteness may be estimated by nearness to sense, and the degree of abstractness, by remoteness from sense. From the psychological point of view, the essential thing to note is that whether the presentation be intuitive, whether the statement be (relatively) concrete, or whether it be abstract, the material thus offered the mind is some complex whole; and if the mind reacts upon it, the mode of reaction must be analytical. In other words, all presentations, whether concrete or abstract, conform to the great psychological law, that "the first procedure of the mind in the elaboration of its knowledge is always analytical."

14. As the first stage in thought proper is the resolution of aggregates, small or great, it is important to note the fact that the great instrument of mental analysis is language. Let us suppose that a general truth has been formulated in words. In what way is the statement to be interpreted to the end that it may be comprehended or understood? If the language is significant, each word arrests the attention upon one element in the aggregate, so that when the series of words has been passed in review, the complex whole has been broken up into a larger or smaller number of parts. Counting is a ready illustration of this general process. In passing regularly from one upward, each number is a determinant, and when the last number has been reached, what at first was an indefinite aggregate has been resolved, say into fifty parts. Analysis by means of language is more difficult than this, because the word must first be translated into a notion, and then the notion individualized; but as mere processes, reading and counting are essentially the same; they serve to call attention to marks, and the determination of marks is a process of resolution.

The more general a term is, that is, the fewer its marks and the greater the number of individuals that it contains, the more difficult it is to interpret it, that is, to translate it into an individual image. Hence the observed fact that so-called concrete statements are more easily understood, or resolved, than abstract statements. At the same time, another important truth becomes obvious,—that the pupil's ability to interpret a general statement is determined by his knowledge of language.

15. Whether instruction shall be concrete or whether it may be abstract, that is, whether the terms shall be near to sense, or whether they may be remote from it, is thus not a psychological question at all; for both forms of instruction conform to the great law of mental growth. It is merely a question of ease or difficulty. Only a general statement can be made, somewhat in this form: The terms employed in the instruction of children should be narrow in extent and near to sense; while those employed in the instruction of the more mature, may be of wide extent and remote from sense. All instruction must employ general terms, and there is always the danger that these terms may not be individualized, or rather *realized*. The remedy is in a careful study of words, and in the testing of the pupil's interpretation by requiring him to express the meaning by the use of other symbols.

16. Sense-impressions are the original material out of which the mind, by its elaborate processes, constructs the whole fabric of thought. Out of a comparatively few primary notions, by combination and permutation, the mind is furnished with an almost infinite variety of new construction. New knowledge is but a new combination of old material, and the most of our thinking consists in discovering or establishing relations be-

tween part and part, and between parts and some containing whole. When a sense-impression has once been established, there is no further need of the object that produced it. Forever after, the symbol of the thing is all that the processes of thought require. The materials for thinking are not objects, but ideas; and, in general, thought proper takes place with the greatest facility and sureness in the absence of sense-stimulation. The assumption that intense sense-activity is conducive to thought proper, is a vulgar error. The senses have served their purpose when they have furnished the mind with the crude materials of thought. A prolonged and acute training of the senses is irrational in its tendency; it magnifies the animal and minimizes the man. The movement of the animal intelligence is invariably outward; it makes no return upon itself. The movement of the human intelligence is somewhat outward, but characteristically inward. So far as it is rational, it returns upon itself in the act of reflection. The proof of this doctrine lies in the incompatibility of a confirmed outward flow of activity with that inward flow which is the necessary condition of thought proper; and also in the actual state of the savage intellect, where we observe an acute training of the senses conjoined with almost absolute torpor of the intellect. In fact, the savage is a living example of persistent sense-training.

The inference to be drawn from this doctrine, is that a training of the senses that more than suffices to furnish the mind with the crude material of thought is downward in its tendency.

17. Feeling and thinking are mental states in such broad contrast that, in their extreme manifestation, they are mutually exclusive. That is, intense feeling is fatal to thinking, and intense thinking deadens feeling. It seems to be one of the ultimate facts of our mental constitution, that the tendency of wholeness is to excite and sustain feeling, and the tendency of analysis is to prevent or to destroy feeling. Conversely, feeling resists the decomposition of aggregates, and so opposes thinking; and thinking, so far as it is analytical, destroys the emotional element in an object.

Some of the more important inferences to be drawn from this doctrine are the following:

1. Sense-activity, *per se*, is unfavorable to thinking. This has been noted, in a general way, in the preceding section.

2. The normal condition for thinking is, in Mr. Bain's happy phrase, "the quiescence of the emotions." Interest in the individuality of a thing, partisanship, prejudice, passion, affection, are each and all the enemies of thought proper. They resist discrimination and insight, and so becloud and betray the judgment. The common saying that "love is blind," implicates a whole philosophy.

3. The direct tendency of mental culture is to weaken the empire of passion and emotion; and, consequently, mental culture is at the same time moral culture.

4. As the purpose of art is to please, an analysis of a work of art that just suffices to raise the quality of its wholeness, is conducive to its high purpose; while any analysis that tends to injure or to destroy this organic unity, defeats the supreme purpose of the artist. Proximate analysis heightens the notion of organic unity, while ultimate analysis, especially if it serves some technical end, as surely destroys such unity. Literary criticism, as now administered in many secondary schools, transgresses this law of æsthetic unity.

18. We state a well-known physiological fact when we say that the feeling of hunger is the motive for eating; and it is a truth of the same order, but of wider significance, to state that the feeling of interest is the motive that leads the mind first to apprehend and then to comprehend. I do not forget that the earliest movement of the mind is automatic or instinctive, nor that automatism always plays an important part in mental growth; but I here refer to another characteristic fact, that the larger part of mental activity is volitional, and that the will is stimulated by motive. Perhaps the clearest conception of the mechanism of motives may be gained by regarding them as forces that act, some by *attraction*, and others by *propulsion*. In other words, we may do a thing because there is some force ahead of us *drawing* us toward the object; or because there is some force behind us *pushing* us toward the object. Pleasurable motives affect us in the first way, and painful ones in the second way. Under the deft manipulation of motives, teaching becomes a fine art; and an adequate exposition of this theme would constitute the most valuable chapter in applied psychology. I can do no more than state a few practical observations:

1. The ultimate aim of the teacher should be to establish motives of the attractive sort that will act continuously and powerfully. Perhaps a love of knowledge for its own sake, or a confirmed taste for intellectual improvement, is the highest and most comprehensive motive that the teacher can seek to establish. But this motive must be regarded as the last term of an ascending series.

2. A less diffuse, but more intense motive, is what Mr. Bain terms "intrinsic charm," a feeling developed and sustained by the particular subject in hand. A ready illustration of this motive is the feeling excited by a work of fiction. It is possible that the sustaining motive in the study of geometry or of grammar may be of this sort.

3. Before the motive of "intrinsic charm" can be brought into service, it will often be necessary to arouse the feeling of *pleasure in prospect*. *Per se*, a study may be uninteresting; but if the pupil can be made to see that some future good is involved in it, he will endure some degree of present discomfort. But when the study is once fairly under way, it is always possible to awaken the feeling of interest in the subject itself.

4. Closely related to the preceding is what may be called *borrowed interest*, from the circumstance that an enthusiasm manifested by a teacher, by classmates, or by a friend, will often induce a like feeling in the breast of the learner. Inherited predilections and antipathies are very common and very powerful motives.

5. At this point we probably cross the line separating the attractive from the propelling motives. It is doubtless to be regretted that it should ever be necessary to resort to these *vis a tergo* motives; but, accepting things as we find them, as we are very often bound to do, we are obliged to employ stimulants of the painful sort. But these modes of stimulation should be regarded as artificial and temporary, to be superseded, as soon as possible, by the attractive motives first described.

The limits assigned to my paper have now been reached, and this imperfect summary must be closed.

DISCUSSION OF PROF. PAYNE'S PAPER.

The discussion of the subject was continued by Principal Boyden, of Bridgewater, Mass. He spoke of what teaching is, what psychology is, and the relation of the two, and concluded by showing the vital relation existing between them.

There was a very general desire to engage in the discussion of Prof. Payne's paper, but on motion of Mr. Brown, of Terre Haute, it was decided to hold a special session at 2:30 P. M., July 17th. By general consent Mr. Newell, of Maryland, not being able to attend again, took the floor for five minutes to speak on the paper, and dissented in the following points from the inferences to be drawn from Prof. Payne's views.

1. Our beginnings of knowledge are not analytical but inductive.
2. The use of the memory to store up knowledge that is not comprehended is wasteful, injurious, stupefying, and deadening.

The President announced the following Committee on Nominations: Messrs. Rounds, of New Hampshire, Gilchrist, of Iowa, and Baldwin, of Texas, after which the session closed.

JULY 17TH.

The Normal section met according to adjournment, Prof. Payne was called upon to re-read his paper and give an opportunity for discussing paragraph by paragraph.

DR. ALLYN, of Illinois, questions whether *all* mental growth is not, like bodily growth, unconscious.

DR. HOOSE, of New York, asks that some one who used the word *assimilation* tell what is meant by "the mind assimilates knowledge."

MR. BROWN, of Terre Haute, suggests that the mind does not assimilate food as the body does; he thinks objects and words stimulate the mind.

DR. HANCOCK, of Ohio, thinks the figure of assimilation applied to the mind is misleading.

Many other members took part in the discussion, and the consideration of Prof. Payne's paper continued with unabated interest until 5 P. M., the hour set for adjournment.

JULY 18TH.

The Normal School section met in its closing session at 2:30 P. M. Prof. H. B. Norton, of California, read a paper on "Enthusiasm."

Prof. Thomas Metcalf, of Illinois, followed in a very interesting essay on the same subject.

In the long discussion which followed, Mr. Boltwood, of Illinois, suggested that if enthusiasm means God in us, it ought also to mean we in God.

MR. ALLEN, of Minnesota: Enthusiasm demands physical, mental, and spiritual strength.

DR. HOOSE, of New York: Even the best body and mind become weary, and it is doubtful whether we have the same ground for enthusiasm as the soldier who fights for an idea.

Mr. Brown, of Indiana, presented a motion that speeches be limited to five minutes each. The motion prevailed.

MR. BROWN: Enthusiasm is quiet.

SUPT. FEITZHAUS, of Illinois: Enthusiasm comes from determination to do better work each year.

MR. GRANT, of Nebraska: Enthusiasm is work! work!! work!!!

MISS KENNEDY, of Normal: Enthusiasm may be caught from the faces of the children.

MRS. WILLIAMS *nee* Lathrop, of Cincinnati: The teacher's enthusiasm springs from a feeling of fitness for the work.

PRES. HEWETT: There should be more enthusiasm in the work of this section, and normal schools should be more closely united.

The section next received and adopted the report of the Committee on Nominations, which resulted in the choice of the following officers for the ensuing year:

President—Geo. P. Brown, of Indiana.

Vice-President—John Baldwin, of Texas.

Secretary—Miss Sprague, of Minnesota.

The session of 1884 then closed by adjournment.

DEPARTMENT OF HIGHER INSTRUCTION.

MADISON, WIS., JULY 16, 1884.

Department of Higher Instruction of the National Educational Association met at Assembly Hall of the University at 2:30 P. M.

The secretary being absent, Prof. Wm. B. Payne, of Tabor College, was chosen Secretary *pro tem*.

On motion of President Folwell, of Minnesota, Dr. I. W. Andrews, of Ohio, was chosen member of the Council for six years.

On motion of President Folwell, Dr. I. W. Andrews and the secretary were chosen a committee on nomination of officers.

Dr. Pickard, of Iowa, read the President's address on the "Co-education of the Sexes." The following is a brief abstract:

To the last half of the nineteenth century is to be credited a marked advance in the estimate put upon woman as a student. Her claims are equal, if not superior, to those of men. Identical education not a necessity, since the elective system is so widely prevalent. "Sex in Education" is a strong argument for co-education. Sex characteristics are best developed and strengthened in mutual exercise. Seclusion thwarts God's plan. Co-education favors a more thorough acquaintance, formed in the higher realm of intellect, safer and surer than that possible under society's forms and concealments. Health is not injured, as proven by statistics. Woman will do her work in a woman's way. The introduction of woman to equal rank with man in professional chairs will prove a bar to injury. In all co-educational institutions there is a steady widening of the courses of study and raising of standards in response to the capabilities and the demands of woman herself. Economy favors the policy, as duplication of agencies is not demanded. Steady increase in the number of co-educational colleges prove their worth.

The address was followed by discussion.

DR. ANDREWS requested an explanation of the limited extent to which co-education has gained favor at the East. He mentioned the rapid growth of Wellesley, Smith, and other colleges exclusively for women, and the comparatively slow growth of those Eastern colleges to which both sexes are admitted.

PROFESSOR CHANDLER, of Wisconsin, expressed the opinion that the reputation of some of the older colleges for hazing and other evils prevent parents from sending their daughters to these institutions. In respect to health of students he had observed that of young women to be better than that of young men.

PRESIDENT MARSHALL considered the conservatism of the people and the ultra conservatism of the older colleges, as well as the idleness and viciousness of young men in some of these as checking the progress of co-education.

BISHOP FALLOWS, of Chicago, described the manner in which co-education had been gradually introduced into the University of Wisconsin, the uniformly favorable results of each step overcoming opposition, and leading to the next step.

PROFESSOR BLAISDALE, of Beloit College, spoke of the "fine edge of womanly modesty," and asked these questions concerning this:

1. Is it worth preserving?
2. Is it impaired by co-education?
3. Can this impairing be avoided by not having ladies appear in public?

DR. PICKARD answered that this "fine edge" is not dulled by *proper* co-education, but in many instances it is sharpened. Those peculiarly sensitive do not seek co-education, while those less sensitive are improved by it.

PROFESSOR LUMRY, of Wheaton College, could say the same thing from an experience of thirty years.

PRESIDENT MOSS, of Indiana, agreed very heartily with the paper. He inquired whether our notions of the shamefacedness required of ladies are correct. He thinks conservatism of New England families explains the fact that co-education does not meet with more favor there. He has found young women in all studies equal to young men. He considers co-education favorable to development of manhood and womanhood.

PRESIDENT TAPPAN, of Ohio, inquired to what extent the idea of having lady officers who have general oversight of the young ladies is carried out.

PRESIDENT FOLWELL stated that he has found the young women better physically than the young men. Co-education has worked well in University of Minnesota. The young women there are the daughters of farmers and others not wealthy. These are improved.

DR. ANDREWS inquired concerning the effect on those having wealth and refinement at home.

PRESIDENT FOLWELL replied that such do not remain, and that at University of Minnesota they have not yet to do with this class. He had in mind a certain young woman whom he would not send to any co-education college.

PRESIDENT MAGOUN, of Iowa College, stated that after two daughters of trustees were admitted in 1857 the results were so satisfactory that the trustees became unanimous in favor of joint education. He believes in *joint* education, but does not believe that it should be the same for both sexes. There are some young men, and some young women for whom joint education is not good, but these are exceptions.

Voted, to adjourn until 2:30 P. M., to-morrow.

PRESIDENT PICKARD in chair.

WM. B. PAYNE, *Secretary pro tem*.

MADISON, WIS., JULY 17, 1884.

Department of Higher Instruction met at the Assembly Hall of the University at 2:30 P. M., President Pickard, presiding.

On motion of Dr. Chapin, of Wisconsin, a committee on nominations was appointed by the chair. This committee consisted of Dr. Chapin, Dr. Tappan, of Ohio, and Prof. Searing, of Minnesota.

President Folwell, of Minnesota, read the following paper on "Political Science in the College Course."

THE CIVIC EDUCATION—ABSTRACT.

BY WILLIAM W. FOLWELL, LL. D.

President of the University of Minnesota.

The passage of the Civil Service Reform Act by the forty-seventh Congress astonished and, in spite of the gravity of the measure, amused the country. Convinced that the people were resolved, our national solons disposed of the bill with the promptness of a boy who, seeing no way of escape from the doctor's orders, swallows his dose precipitately, feeling that it "were well done if 'twere done quickly." Besides, there was the conspicuous incongruity that in the ranks of the great party of moral ideas and reform no champion could be found for the great reform of all, which, therefore, had to accept the hospitality of that other great party whose motto had some time been, "To the victors belong the spoils." It was a full generation from the adoption of the constitution to the time when the infamous doctrine that public offices are proper rewards for political services, went into practical effect. From that time the tyranny of the majority has been established and maintained, and government by the people has been supplanted by government by party. Except as far as influence extends, the out-voted minorities might as well have been disfranchised. Our national elections have become tremendous contests for the possession by one political army or the other of the public treasury, the armed force of the country, and all other instruments of government.

We are chiefly concerned with the fact that by the passage of the civil service reform act, the doom of that system has been spoken. The law has gone quietly into effect and with great wisdom its operation has been confined to a limited range of offices. Of the 110,000 positions in the United States civil service only 14,000 have been brought under the operation of the law. The first report of the Civil Service Commission I think to be the most important public document of the age, as proving the feasibility of the law, and showing how it may be extended to all offices in service. Hereafter we shall hear no machine politicians proclaiming that it will not work. It does work, and works well.

The civil service act means that by and by no majority shall have the right or the power to seat its bosses and whippers in the public offices. It means that no party in power shall organize the hundred thousand public servants into solid battalions for political campaigns. It means that no political party shall have the right or the opportunity of depriving the people of the services of capable and experienced servants. It means, country and people before party and spoils. The principle will be extended to our public education, and will result in permanent employment for competent teachers, who will then, and not sooner, form a profession. The just principle of this reform—that only those shall do things who know how to do them—will at length be carried over from the administrative functions of government to directive and legislative functions.

An ultimate result of the civil service reform—and all I have said up to this point has for its purpose to emphasize the statement I am now making—an ultimate result of civil service reform must be the opening in our country of a legitimate political career for young men. When the public offices shall be open as a fact, and not as a theory, to the competition of all aspiring youth, the country may, by a wise selection of the best, form for herself a true aristocracy—a government of the best. When no accident of birth, or wealth, or political connection can insure political employment, young men may honorably aspire to obtain it by proving their merit.

It is at this point that we meet an objection constantly brought forward by opposers of the reform, who say: "Your body of permanent office holders will soon become a clique or caste of narrow, supercilious, mechanical snobs. In place of the true aristocracy you promise, you will give the people a 'bureaucracy,' like that which forms the machinery of a Russian despotism." I think the danger of "bureaucracy" must be admitted. It is natural for a body of men retaining offices for long terms to fall into the delusion that they have a kind of proprietorship in them, and the properties intrusted to themselves. Especially is this true when admission to the office-holding craft is by grace of an appointing power, and family interest and political interest unite in maintaining the caste. Granting the dangers of bureaucracy, we have to inquire whether they will be greater under a reformed civil service than they now are under our present deformed system.

There is a social principle of vast energy and far penetrating activity, which now demands tardy recognition in our governmental operations. I mean the principle of division of labor—division of labor, remitting each individual to that employment in which he can be most efficient, assorting employments so that to the strong may fall the heavy tasks, to the weak the lighter ones, assorting abilities so that brains may be sent to the quarter deck, and brawn to the fore-castle—division of labor at once a cause, concomitant, and consequence of civilization. This principle everywhere

acknowledged to be the master power in industry and commerce—this principle a fundamental economic postulate we have been vainly—as will appear—endeavoring to shut out of public affairs. Plato, the Greek, understood this better than we moderns, saying in his Republic: “We should make it our special business to choose what men and what talents are suited for the guardianship of a State.”

The circumstances of our English colonists naturally directed them toward primeval forms of democracy. The town-meeting system was appropriate for rural communities, economically independent, growing their own food, manufacturing their own fabrics, and, under congregational forms, conducting their own worship. Under a system of restricted suffrage, it was the general fact that almost any elector could discharge the duties of any office. All voters were supposed to be equally competent to make and to be officers. For several generations the fact corresponded sufficiently near to this theory—the primeval theory of democracy. I need not say that time has passed. The American farmer no longer cobbles his shoes or wears his homespun coat. The rural handicraftsman has disappeared. The factory system has massed the manufacturing population into urban centres and associated them as attachments, almost automatic, with machines. As labor is now organized and paid, the wage-worker cannot leave his bench, his lathe, or his loom to take part in public affairs. The words which the son of Sirach spoke of the husbandman, the carpenter, the smith, and the potter twenty-five centuries ago, have come true again in these latter days.

“They shall not be sought for in public council, nor sit high in the congregation; they shall not sit in the judges’ seat, nor understand the sentence of judgment; they shall not declare justice and judgment, and they shall not be found where parables are spoken.”—Ecclesiasticus xxxviii: 33. To which he adds (verse 34): “But they will maintain the state of the world, and their desire is in the work of their craft.”

Employers in their fierce competition for profits are as unwilling as laborers are unable to take their share of public duty. The refusal of business men to take office, their reluctance to do jury duty, and their carelessness about voting are notorious. Division of labor still, has been working with the silence and unceasing energy of gravitation in politics as well as out of politics. While sending some men to the farm and others to merchandise, it has set apart others to fix the primaries, to manage the caucuses, and to tinker the laws. The politics of nation, state, county, and town have gone into the hands of a class—a self-constituted body with its bosses, and workers, and strikers, as perfectly organized as a modern army. If there are any who do not know, they ought at once to learn, that money is now the one great power in politics.

A great metropolitan journal has published a systematic schedule showing the average cost of obtaining the principal offices, State and national, to candidates and their backers. It is simply notorious that in the last presidential contest money was poured by the millions by both great political parties into the doubtful States. It is an ominous fact that many seats in the United States Senate are occupied by millionnaires, and some fearful citizens say "None others need apply." It is no secret that no citizen need aspire to the House of Representatives unless he or his friends have many thousands to spend. To a plutocracy then we have come! Let those who denounce civil service reform, for fear of bureaucracy, now take their choice. They may content themselves with the present system of bosses and strikers working the public for spoils, or join in the effort for a better one, under which merit and competency shall be the passport to office. The conclusion of this matter now is, that under the inevitable operation of the principle of the division of labor, there must and will be a body of persons set aside for public functions, and choose we must between a self-constituted body, actuated by greed and ambition, and one composed of men selected by appropriate tests for proven fitness. In beginning the reform of our civil service we have made our choice, and I have too much faith in the sound sense of my countrymen to believe that they will not carry it forward. If I have dwelt at too great length upon a matter which is merely introductory in this paper it is because I am impressed with its vast moment and because I foresee that it will introduce a most important revolution into our education. We have agreed that to escape the tyranny of a self-constituted oligarchy we shall at length, as the only and the happy alternative, entrust public functions to a selected body of trained experts and specialists. For this body there will be needed a new education as for a learned profession. This need is an obvious one; already considerable movement has been made in response to it. But this education is only part of a greater one far less likely to be cared for. Under all forms of government and all kinds of administrations eternal vigilance is ever the price of liberty. The more we specialize in politics the greater the need of political knowledge in the people. The greater the powers and will of a body of officials, still greater the need of a large body of men learned in civil affairs out of office. This is simply saying that employers must understand their business as well as employees. It will be a fatal day for liberty if ever the American people turn their public affairs over to any body of men and excuse themselves from further concern about them.

If, therefore, the civil service reform shall be a blessing and not a curse to the country, we must provide an ampler civic education for the whole people, as well as special instruction of our public servants. The schools of the future may or may not teach less mathematics, less language, less

natural science, but they must teach something about the administration of public affairs, about the great political questions of suffrage and citizenship, taxation, and public education, and about the great economic doctrines of population, rent, wages, profits, value, money, and credits. All teachers—and I include the clergy and the journalists—must be thoroughly furnished with the body of established economic and political truth. To a tremendous task, then, has the civil service reform committed us—that is, to the political and economic education of a nation of a hundred millions of people. Immense, however, and important as this work is, I think it possible to make haste too quickly in it. I doubt if it would be wise, if practicable, to introduce the study of political economy into our common schools in the present condition of that science. It is only a hundred years or a little more since the subject assumed a form to which the name of science could be given. There are very few topics upon which authorities are united. We are probably not ready to introduce the dogmatic teaching of political economy into common schools. On the other hand, we probably are ready to introduce instruction in the organization of our Government and its administration, and in regard to this we ought to adopt the excellent method now used in teaching geography—that of beginning with the local and proceeding gradually to the distant and foreign. Our children should first of all be taught the nature of the town or city government, then that of the county or State, and later that of the nation. The existing manuals of civil government reverse this natural order when they do not wholly ignore all but the United States Government. In regard to social instruction I think no better beginning can be made than is now made in some of our States by the introduction of compulsory instruction upon the injurious effects of Alcoholism. A generation of such work will do more to wipe out the curse of drunkenness and its dread accompaniments, misery and crime, than all the Maine laws and prohibitory amendments that could be passed in a century. Why should we not use our schools for so beneficent a work? Hitherto we have been teaching the children the things likely to be useful to them in the shops and the market. Let us begin to instruct them as to the duties and relations of home, and social circle, and the ballot-box. Business, after all, forms but a small part of life and that a mere incidental part. "Conduct," says Matthew Arnold, "conduct forms three-fourths, if not seven-eighths of life." Let us educate for life and not for mere dicker.

In spite of the great and distracting activity of a political class, deceiving ourselves as well as foreigners into the notion that we are wholly engrossed in public affairs, I think it to be the American habit to under-rate politics and government. Nor is this fact strange. Few in numbers, sparsely occupying vast and fertile areas, reaping unlimited harvests and trading to all the ports of both oceans, our farmers, artisans, and mer-

chants have thought it puerile business to be assessing and collecting taxes, adjusting accounts and tinkering the laws. This all the more, because the *laissez-faire* doctrine, preached by the English economists, who were our early teachers, obtained and has held so general acceptance. At length we are slowly opening our eyes to a new order of affairs. We are no longer a band of colonists hanging on the fringe of the Atlantic border. We are no longer an aggregation of rural democracies, managing our public affairs in the town meeting. We are not a mere federation of States. We are a great nation, conveniently subdivided, but having a central power practically omnipotent. Our population is gathered into and about certain great centres of industry and commerce. In these great cities democracy is confessedly a failure, and we find them resorting to the state governments to impose upon themselves a government which shall make life and property safe. Under the socialistic tendencies of the age we are calling on the government to execute functions which our forefathers left to the operation of the voluntary principle. We are making of the government a great mutual benefit and insurance institution, in place of confining it to the protection of person and property. We place the whole industries of the country under the protection and control of the government, and there is not a business man from Portland to San Francisco but breathes easier when Congress has adjourned without disturbing the markets and demoralizing our vast enterprises. What government may do then is a matter of immediate and often vital concern to every citizen. The power to tax is a power to rob; the power to arrest and imprison is a power to enslave; the power to take life is a power to commit judicial murder. Certainly we cannot overestimate the civic education which trains citizens to perform their duties and defend their rights. But if we extend our view beyond the ordinary run of things, beyond mere routine functions, we are met at once by an array of political problems, tremendous and appalling to the trained publicist, but which every American citizen will have to pass upon, probably before the generation to which we belong shall have left the stage.

Among these problems are these: (1) The problem of legalizing the causes in the way of a preliminary election. (2) That of suffrage extension and incidental thereto the proposition to establish a system of intermediate electors. (3) The question of land monopoly. (4) The transportation question. (5) State medicine. (6) State education. (7) Prohibition. (8) Protection under many and some novel phases. [The paper as written discussed these topics at some length.]

Few persons are aware how largely modern legislation is socialistic in principle. The modern legislature is overwhelmed with propositions to do good by force of law, and the means controlled by the State.

As one of the great powers of the earth we have come into great and responsible international relations, which are rapidly multiplying. Questions of extradition, naturalization, arbitration, are constantly arising. The doctrines of privateering, blockade, neutrality, have still to be definitely settled. Wisely, our nation keeps out of European quarrels, but avoid the duties of comity and of protection to our citizens we cannot. Mistakes in home politics may simply cause the loss of wealth; blunders in international politics may bring war.

Such are some of the problems and duties of the time in the domain of politics. To dispose of them we find ourselves in possession of the most complicated political machinery the world has known. I doubt if our political system is thoroughly understood by any of our statesmen, except the few who have read foreign books upon it. We are indebted to a Frenchman for the most convenient and philosophical text-book upon our political institutions. To most citizens the United States government is a foreign power, so rarely does it touch them with a bare hand. What cities may do and what counties, what jurisdiction the various courts of justice have, and such like questions, but few citizens ever know except in a few particulars. If ever a people needed a civil education, is it not ourselves? Virtue is indispensable, it is true, to good government; but virtue is not enough. We must add knowledge. Rational conduct is the fruit of principles well understood, and facts exactly comprehended.

I have expressed the opinion that it is not now practicable to introduce political and economic instruction on any large scale into lower schools. The university, I now submit, is the appropriate place for collecting, assorting, and diffusing the knowledge essential to a better civic education. That is the very function of the university. It is probably not true that great ideas, great inventions, great systems, or works arise within academic walls. It is just as true that the university is the conservator of them all. Genius is chary of collegiate trammels, preferring the freedom of the garret, the workshop, and the studio. It is the useful and honorable function of the university to gather up the work of a Copernicus, a Bacon, a La Place, a Watt, a Morse, or an Edison, co-ordinate, and explain it and hand it down in the form of science to succeeding ages. I believe the time has come for the university to undertake the task of collecting and arranging the facts and principles from which we may develop a fuller and wiser political science than we yet possess.

We have seen how great is the need. The time seems to favor the attempt. The great historians of our age have unfolded the life, social and public, of all great nations of the past, so that we have innumerable examples of conduct, policy, and legislation. The sciences of political economy and national economy are still in an unsettled condition, but the study and discussion of them has produced a certain state of mind of far

greater moment than any of their particular conclusions can ever be. These subjects can not be considered except on the presupposition that history—that has been, and is yet to be—is one mighty chain, in which cause and effect are indissolubly linked. As men and nations sow, so shall they also reap. It is the habit of our age to look for the causes of economical and political results among the antecedent phenomena, and not to eclipses, the movements of the powers of the air, or the prayers, however fervent, of opposing hosts on the eve of battle. Upon the basis of this truly scientific habit of mind have been laid the foundations of a new science whose walls are just rising into view, but whose rounded dome will remain to be reared by future hands. To have drawn the ground plan and sketched a superstructure will have been glory enough for our age. I speak of the science of sociology, and I think it but justice to say that whatever may be the verdict of the future as to his contributions to philosophy, Herbert Spencer's fame as the founder of this science is secure.

And upon the same foundation with sociology must be built the included and partial science of politics, which till lately has been but a name since Aristotle's day, but the writings of Woolsey have made political science again more than a name. The time, then, seems to be ripe for the university to assume and organize instruction in social and political science. Some such great function the university must assume or sink into a position of unimportance. She will cease to be honored whenever she ceases to be concerned about the highest things. Neither the pursuit of abstract science, nor the applications of science in the useful arts will keep the university in repute, nor will philosophy, nor mathematics, nor philology keep her venerable among men. The highest things—the problems of humanity, the conduct of States, the government of cities, the economies of communities and nations, the establishment of peace, and above all the education of peoples—these things must be made chief studies, or men will look outside of universities for their guiding lights.

It was my desire to establish the duty of the university to become the seat and teacher of social and political science at the point of convergence of these four lines of argument:

1. The opening of a legitimate public career to young Americans, as a result of the civil service reform.
2. The press of a great variety of most complicated and difficult problems already demanding practical solution.
3. The late development of the science of sociology, and of the scientific method in that and the included sciences.
4. The need of the university to be engaged in the study of the highest things, under penalty of losing prestige and influence.

If you will charitably allow me to assume this ground as well taken, I will go on to consider briefly some practical questions of detail. It is

much easier to propose the introduction of new studies into a college course than place them in. It was part of Solon's constitution that the proposer of a new law should come forward with a halter round his neck, with which to be righteously hanged if his bill should be rejected. It is much the same with him who suggests the addition of new studies to a curriculum already overcrowded. If a new study comes in an old one must make way for it. Accordingly it has been proposed that no attempt be made to introduce sociological and political studies into an undergraduate course, but to arrange courses to be pursued by graduates—post-graduate courses so called. There is no speculative objection to this plan, but there is a serious practical objection—that we cannot expect that any considerable number of students to be willing, and if willing, able, to extend their studies beyond the ordinary period of graduation. To put the studies in question out of the undergraduate field is to put them out of the university. These studies are of the greatest value, they are attractive to fascination, and they are well adapted to furnish that discipline which is a chief, if not the chief end of the undergraduate work. The earlier years of college life being devoted to the completion of the secondary education begun in school, we must if possible find in the later years a place for our courses in social and political science. To this solution the three or four American universities which have organized this work have come, and to the same other universities must come, whenever it shall be in order to propose any liberal and comprehensive plan of instruction in this field.

Given our college of political and social science what shall be its work? At the bottom of all must rest a solid basis of historical knowledge, and if that shall have not been laid down in an earlier stage of the student's progress it must be put there at the beginning of that we are speaking of.

Assuming the possession of a body of clear, historical knowledge, I think the next thing would be to co-order and explain it by a course of instruction in the philosophy of history, for which a model has been furnished by Guizot not likely to be surpassed. These foundation timbers should next be crossed with a study of the elements of political economy, and the history of that science, and this I would in turn bind down with a course in the elements of law. Thus upon the foundation of history we should have reared a solid platform in alternate layers of the philosophy of history, political economy, and the elements of law. These studies, at least, should be compulsory upon all degree students.

The material for our superstructure embarrass by their number and magnitude. They are such branches as these: history of political ideas and institutions; history of federal government; history and science of administration; English constitutional history; American constitutional history; political ethics; political economy in many ramifications; national economy, particularly American national economy, embracing a multitude

of topics, such as taxation, finance, immigration, protection, banks, currency, land laws, pauperism, public health, public education, sumptuary laws, and so on; American government—federal, state, county, town; city government, its history, its practice, ancient and modern; international law and the history of diplomacy. This partial enumeration shows of itself that no single course could possibly include them all, were it extended over a lifetime. Without doubt it will be necessary to separate them into suitable natural groups and thus offer them to the choice of students.

In such matters but one method is tolerable—that called the historic method which is after all merely the induction method applied over great spaces and epochs. "History," says Freeman, "is past politics, and present politics is history."

To establish and assure the student of political and economic science in the historic method, he should be required to perform some amount of original work. It does not matter much what the line of work should be, whether the personal history of some family of paupers, a great strike of artisans, the evolution of banking, the rise and progress of a granger movement, or the long development of a constitution, if by its patient and earnest pursuit the student shall learn the use of his tools; learn him to investigate and record. At least one honest and successful piece of research and analysis should be a condition precedent to graduation.

I have dwelt on these details too long, perhaps, but because a general idea will not have acceptance unless shown to be workable in at least one way. I care but little about this or any particular way, and will heartily welcome a better. My chief contention is that the civic education be recognized; its growing importance be acknowledged, and that our colleges and universities respond to the demand of the times.

DISCUSSION OF PROFESSOR FOLWELL'S PAPER.

PROF. E. J. JAMES, of the Wharton School of Finance and Economy of the University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, opened the discussion of President Folwell's paper. He said :

There is probably no country in the world where the study of political science in some of its phases is so universal as in America. Nor is there, probably, any country in which the treatment of many of the most important questions connected with that sphere of study is so superficial. This phenomenon is to be explained on the one hand by the wide range of schools in which this study has been introduced, and on the other by the fact that we have had hitherto no special schools, or special faculties, or even special chairs for the furtherance of investigation along these lines. Everybody has studied Political Science in its elements; nobody has made it the sole subject of his work.

The desirable end to attain is a course of study which shall begin in the common elementary school and be continued through the secondary and higher schools, so arranged that there shall be nothing to unlearn, and that every term's work shall be a preparation for the work of the following term. With such a course of study the boy of ten could begin the subject and continue it through the grammar and high schools, and into the college, and having finished the latter he might then take up, if he desires, the special work of a professional school in these lines.

It is perfectly possible to lay out such a course. It should begin with a study of the concrete facts of the form of government under which the children live—say with the government of the school district, town, township, county, State, and nation. When the facts are once learned, a comparison should be instituted between the governmental system of one State and that of another. This would lead, of course, to a consideration of questions of expediency and of principle. A careful study of the history of the home government should be made. The institutions should be studied in their origin and development. All this can be done in the elementary and secondary schools. After the boy reaches the college the study of Political Economy and of the Science of Government may be begun. He will have already seen that many of the questions started in connection with his previous study can not be answered without a careful consideration of Political Economy and of the theory of the State, etc. He is now in the right mood to take up Political Economy and he will run no danger of being swept away in the boundless regions of pure speculation, for his historical study has given him a sound basis of fact and a sort of standard by which to test his theories. He can then go on to a profounder and deeper study of the history and course of government in other times and places, and of the speculations of theorists of other ages and countries. This last, of course, he can only get in those institutions which offer wide opportunities for what we call post-graduate studies in this line of work.

With such a course of study carefully planned and widely introduced all our institutions—common school, high school, college, and university—can work together in perfect harmony for the furtherance of this very important line of work. Such a curriculum would correspond to all the demands of a sound educational theory. It would begin with the concrete, with that part of the subject which the child-mind could thoroughly master. It would open continuously before the student, offering a continually widening field for his research. It would be pursued for a sufficient length of time to afford that mental growth and discipline which characterize the long and thorough study of any branch of human science. It would yield, further, a large amount of knowledge which would be very useful to the citizen of a free country. It would be, therefore, a useful and at the same time a liberalizing branch of study—surely an ideal element in an educational curriculum.

The progress of the study of this subject in the United States is clearly indicated by the recent establishment of several departments for the special furtherance of such studies while many of the older universities have lately added largely to their force in

this line of work. The University of Pennsylvania, Columbia College, and the University of Michigan have all established special departments, while Harvard and Yale Colleges offer similar advantages in their recently adopted elective system.

In answer to inquiries from members present as to what instruction is actually offered in the Wharton School of Finance and Economy of the University of Pennsylvania, Professor James made the following statement: The subjects taught in this department of the University are Political Economy, Political Science, Legislation, Theory and Law of Public Administration, Public Finance, Statistics, Mercantile Law and Practice, Constitutional History and Law. Four full professors give all their time to these subjects. Students are admitted at the close of the Sophomore year of a reputable college. The senior class is usually largely composed of college graduates. The class for 1883, for example, contained six members, of which five were college graduates, one of them of ten years ago and at present State Senator, another from the University of Tokio, Japan. The object of the department is to offer the fullest advantages for the general and special study of all questions connected with government, to afford the student opportunity to acquire that general knowledge of our institutions—their origin, history, and *raison d'être*—which all citizens should possess, as well as that more special acquaintance with their underlying principles which every lawyer, legislator, and government official should possess.

PRESIDENT ANDREWS, of Ohio, considers it better that a student should obtain a modicum of knowledge on this subject than that he should devote the latter half of his college study to a special course in this subject to the neglect of other branches. He objects to all forms of teaching which neglect facts. That teaching is at fault which does not give some exact knowledge. He regards prejudice against political economy as unfounded. This subject is common sense. International law is a liberalizing study.

PROFESSOR CANFIELD, of Kansas, expressed approval of what Dr. Andrews had said. He also mentioned Dr. Andrews' book on the Constitution as free from the objection which had been mentioned.

Committee on Nominations reported as follows :

For *President*, Dr. Moss, of Indiana.

For *Vice-President*, Dr. John Bascom, of Wisconsin.

For *Secretary*, Dr. W. G. Williams, of Ohio.

Report adopted.

By request of President Pickard, Dr. Moss took the chair.

PRESIDENT BASCOM read the following paper on the "Relation of Classical Study to a Liberal Education."

THE PART WHICH THE STUDY OF LANGUAGE PLAYS IN A LIBERAL EDUCATION.

BY JOHN BASCOM, LL. D.

Progress is not made by men in a straight line. It is secured by movements in different directions which correct each other; as a boat beats up against the wind. The mind no more moves directly to the truth, than the magnetic needle rests due north. In each case there are additions and subtractions to be made, referable to local influences.

Thus in education, long as our attention has been occupied with the subject, we are not only not at one as to the methods to be employed, we are not wholly agreed as to the ends to be pursued. In the discussion of so comprehensive a question, as the part which the study of language plays in a liberal education, we must, first of all, recognize the forms of bias and prejudgment which belong to our time.

We are inclined, in the first place, with more than usual decision, to prefer special knowledge to general information. We are on this tack limited to an exact training. The field of knowledge is so large that we are ready to be lost in it, and we are disposed to save ourselves from a superficiality of attainment too painfully obvious to us, by directing our attention chiefly to some one form of work. We are pleased with saying, It is better to know one thing well than many things poorly. This method is also thought to favor immediate success in practical pursuits, and we are above all things practical. Money is a more universal standard of measurements than ever before. A desire to stamp an industrial character on our popular education is one result of this bias. We wish to impart a form of knowledge which the pupil can turn to direct account, and so to justify education to the thrifty temper about us. The scientific spirit deepens this idea. Discovery is the result of limited and searching inquiry, and calls for and commends this method. The scientific and the practical temper unite in urging this pursuit of special knowledge, and the tendency has become so strong with us as to endanger the equilibrium of a large rational life.

A second, apparently unlike, yet really like, bias leads us to prefer erudition to power, an increase in knowledge to an increase of ability in

the use of knowledge. This disposition, however, is so much opposed to the general balance of English character, that we are not likely to suffer severely from it. Erudition, as a slough of despond into which the human mind may fall, belongs to Germany and not either to England or to America. Erudition will occasionally justify itself by some important, perhaps brilliant result, while personal power is compelled to rely for vindication on a general mastery of the conditions of life; and this mastery, of infinite worth in the aggregate, presents but few points of bright light. We are still so full of a spirit of hero-worship, are so earnestly in search of leaders, that gigantic attainments in the world of letters easily captivate the imagination. The average man, with powers well in hand, sinks with us below his true position.

A third bias, running parallel with these two, and stronger than either of them, is a disposition to place a relatively low estimate on man and humanities, and a relatively high one on things and physical laws and cosmic order. Man has not only fallen in the narrowly scientific mind from the position he once held, psychology and social science and art and religion are treated as annexes to physical science; and when these topics are so discussed the results go far to justify the humiliation put upon them. We are misled by the many failures suffered in philosophy and the great successes achieved in science. Action in one direction has become the lull of reaction in the other, and we are under the strong bias of a pronounced and prosperous scientific movement. First, the world, then man; first the whole, then the parts; first evolution, then its latest terms, is our line of inquiry, and we press upon and overbear those who wish to abide in mind and the race of men as the true intellectual centres of sight and insight. Before we can wholly understand any educational problem, we must be aware of these three forms of bias that have fallen upon us; general intelligence replaced by special knowledge; power supplanted by erudition; man interpreted in reference to things and in dependence on them.

A true estimate of any factor in education, like that of language, implies a broad and just comprehension of the end of education. The breadth and justness of our view turn on two particulars: the nature of intellectual life, and the numbers with whom we must share it. Wise education exalts this life in itself, and gives it the greatest extension in the field it occupies. It sees that extension and power are inseparable in mind; that the eagle must have the air in which to fly. With this view before us, it is plain we cannot substitute special knowledge for general intelligence, nor erudition for power, nor matter for humanity. Each and all of these tendencies narrow down individual life, and make society more and more mechanical and immobile in its relations. While society is in a way organic, it is the most fluent and shift of all organisms. Society is not

a second monster man, in which we have feet, head, and hands in fixed dependence; it is rather a spiritual protoplasm, instinct with life in every portion, all eye, all ear, all hand, in a service which extends itself quickly and intensely to and through every atom in it. To bind each man by special knowledge to one function in society is indeed to give society hands and feet; but is not to make it a living spirit, mobile in all its parts, like the cherubim of Ezekiel.

The scientific bias may not be seen at once to have this narrowing effect. Indeed, it may distinctly disclaim it on the ground that science has ultimate reference to the well-being of men, and is engaged in the preliminary inquiry into the lines of law along which this well-being is to be achieved. None the less this criticism takes hold; science fails to feel and sufficiently meet those higher, more pervasive, more universal incentives which Matthew Arnold, with clear insight, has termed the instincts of conduct and of beauty. The spiritual world is not simply the last product of the physical world. Man is not merely one more organism capping a thousand lower ones. His relations within himself and with his own kind are more to him than all other relations. Individual life, in its entire scope, is intensely pervasive of social life; and social life is reciprocally pervasive of individual life; and that education is the most liberal and complete that best expounds the two and unites the two in their interaction, giving to personal powers the range of public thought and to public thought the inspiration of personal powers. Reason is a kind of omnipresence, and both the individual reason and the general reason must be in a measure omnipresent in the whole body of thought, as the soul of man sees in the eye and feels in the finger. Education, then, is liberal in the degree in which it awakens intelligence and extends intelligence, starting from its own centre in each mind. Education must be moral, must be spiritual, for education is an extension of each man's knowledge, activity, emotional life by the knowledge, activity, emotional life of those about him. Mind is the medium everywhere to mind, and in this medium play all moral impulses, as light moves in the ether and in it alone. Language, therefore, will be a factor in a liberal education in the degree in which it helps to put mind in possession of its own true field, universal intelligence and universal emotion.

The study of language must retain a central position in general education because, in the first place, it is the one grand instrument and medium of thought. It is not sufficient to say that language is the instrument of thought, it is rather its embodiment, its physically correlative term, that in which and through which alone thought attains its own life. Language is not so much the greatest, most continuous, and most productive invention, it is the luxuriant and beautiful leafage and fruitage of our spiritual being; no mental power can unfold itself, no mental process can complete

itself, save as it spreads this living tissue of words to the light. The great mind, like that of Shakespeare or of Bacon, is the great master of words; the cultivated nation is the nation whose words are thickly scattered, like precious stones, through the entire vale of thought. Not to know the true instrument of mind is not to know mind; not to be able to move with these winged feet of thought is to be among those spiritually halt and maimed. As the strong mind must master the body, and live in and by it, so must vigorous thought have trained insight into language, and the power of its perfect use.

Language is also the double-leaved door to literature. The most central and secluded of the halls of art, the hall in which sensible symbols are at once the last terms of the physical and the first terms of the spiritual, the hall softened in the light of the senses and subdued to silence that a light of more revelation and words of more inspiration may find way in it, is the hall of literature. We need not stop to say that all which is marvellous in literature, all which is art, is a fitting formation of words. is the embodiment of thoughts and feelings in this edification of the mind by which it builds up its otherwise tenuous and fugacious experiences into the enduring structures of prose and poetry. We cannot enter this hall of art, save by the door of language; we cannot feel the enchantment of this extended spiritual presence to which so many of the great are coming from all periods and places; we cannot share this truly human and race worship, save as we hold that key of insight which unlocks this door of language. Language must have ceased to be to us the coarse instrument of strenuous uses, an opening to the storehouses of food and clothing, and have become a keen delight, an access to the sportive and redundant life of the spirit, the supreme product of our most subtle powers, before we can be at home in literature, and share the pleasures of those who walk the world prophetically discerning its coherent laws, or feeling its continual flow of passion, or conscious of the constructive force of its inexhaustible intelligence. To ask, therefore, whether we shall strive to master language in some one of its phases is to ask whether we will have the liberty of the intellectual world; whether we will be as the crude sap which is sucked in at the roots of the tree, or as that transformed fluid which has circulated in its branches, has been elaborated in its fragrant leaves, and been made instinct with those genetic impulses that are set in motion in its flowers and fruits. To receive, enjoy, and transmit the highest inheritance of the race, this is the pleasure of literature; and language is its one medium.

It is hardly needful to add that a mastery of language, not as a dead instrument but as a living product and expression of mind, is essential to any considerable knowledge of history. Of all facts those of history should be most interesting to us, as being the latest and highest in the line

of evolution, as pertaining most immediately to ourselves, and as lying within the bounds of the spiritual world as well as of the physical world. We are not disposed to disparage the value of any facts whatever. Frog and angleworm may well share our interest, yet if there is any difference in the value of facts, that difference lies for man in favor of those facts which touch him most directly and deeply. Those other facts owe no small part of their interest to the way in which they lead up to man, and are the steps of ascent to the sacred precincts and shrine of human thought. Language is to be studied first for its own sake, still more for the sake of the literature which is its informing spirit, and yet more for the human life which these two enfold and unfold.

Language, literature, and history lead up to philosophy. Philosophy is an interpretation of the human mind, which appears as the one constructive agent in them all. Mind is the counterpart, therefore, of these visible products of mind; if we understand the one we understand the other also. That philosophy, and that only, is sound which is a clear rendering of language, literature, and history in the powers involved. While these three lead to philosophy, philosophy returns to them with its expositions. Philosophy now suffers decay because these avenues to it are partially deserted, or are traversed in a new and alien spirit. That must be true of philosophy which Joubert affirms of Bossuet: "Times and doctrines in all their multitude were ever before his spirit, as things and words in all their multitude were ever before it." It is in the concourse of human life, and where spiritual incentives are most pronounced and urgent, that philosophy establishes itself to give and to receive knowledge.

Close under the shadow of philosophy gather the social sciences, Ethics, Government, and Economy. When philosophy weakens, these weaken with it. Ethics, the Science of Government, and Political Economy have of late years been strenuously discussed in a spirit and with a method drawn from science rather than from philosophy. The effort has not been fruitless,—energetic labor is rarely fruitless—but it has brought with it many rash assertions, which it will take time to overcome. As an example, distinguished economists have striven to make Political Economy an exact science, resting on the axiom, Men seek the largest returns with the least labor, and on the principle, Competition is the natural and adequate redress of all exaction. This effort proceeds on the idea that man, in social activity, is a perfectly mobile factor. History and philosophy flatly contradict this assertion, as a general truth. Custom, prejudice, ignorance, indolence, vice, fear are all inertias which stand in the way both of the axiom and of the principle, and call for their constant correction and modification in practice.

With this department of knowledge, social science, belong also, theology and law; these two professions find their chief sources of interest

and instruction in the things which concern men in their higher activity. They must be backed and buttressed, if they are to stand firmly, by historic interpretation and sound philosophy.

Now there remains over against this broad domain of human inquiry which we have briefly sketched another grand domain of knowledge, the physical sciences. We not only would not in any way detract from the freshness and value of the truths here offered, we would insist both on their intrinsic value and their supplementary importance when taken with the other group of studies which gather about man as their immediate centre. Not only is the physical universe a most noble object of study, we need to study it all the more, because the ideas that rule in it, and the laws which apply to it, are not those which primarily govern the actions of men. Physical Science, allowed to stand by itself and for itself, must be granted a large section in human knowledge. It is only when it struggles for precedence, or insists on furnishing the ideas that are to rule human thought, or says, in the hasty confidence of success, "The scientific method is the only one that is of any value," that we decidedly object. So forcing itself forward, science does not so much bring with it a liberal education as an illiberal one. It is then that we feel strongly the need of the old ways to protect us against the conceit, shallowness, and irreverence of the new comer, as he knocks at the door of literature, history, and philosophy, not for admission but for surrender. When he walks through the fields of historic and philosophic criticisms, pushing right and left, justifying the crudest opinions with his favorite phrase "the best scholars of to-day," he is, to say the least, an object of hearty aversion.

Having before us the departments of knowledge, we ought to be able to answer the question, What part does a study of language play in a liberal education? Without a quiet, penetrative, sympathetic knowledge of language, and pre-eminently of some one language, we shall not understand literature, especially on its artistic side. Without literature, history will become to us a comparatively dead record of events, and without history the conventional, ethical, and spiritual forces that have been at work in it will be misunderstood by us. Thus the foremost result of a liberal education, easy movement in the world of ideas, will be wanting to us. No knowledge of physical facts and physical laws can cover this weakness.

Since, then, language is the ladder by which we are to ascend into the realm of thought; what languages are we to study? History has made the plainest possible answer to this question. History and human life have pre-eminently one root, and that root is first Grecian, then Roman. We may be content to let Egypt, Babylon, Assyria, Persia, India, lie on the horizon of knowledge, a horizon that yields here and there ruddy light, but one that is and must remain remote from us. Not thus with that which

lies within our horizon, Grecian art and Roman history. Here the world, the modern world, our world, began in good earnest, these are the full fountains feeding the river on which we are afloat. Language, art, civilization, religion, unite and move on together from this point in the world's history. If we wish to begin, there is no nearer beginning than this. History has settled the question for us. It has made its own centre and struck its own circumference and we are in it. As English men we may the more cheerfully accept this result. The English language is so simple in its own construction, is so succulent of all wealth in foreign words, that it relieves us of direct study, and remits us to the largest indirect study. We must wander, as our own native tongue has wandered, back to Greece and Rome, and over modern Europe, and build ourselves up, as it has built itself up, with wide comprehension and eager appropriation.

A desire really to master our own literature will lead us to much the same conclusion. Our most keen appreciative insight into literary art will doubtless be found, and should be found, in connection with works in our own language. But this insight should be to us in a large measure our birth-right, and not that which we win by traffic. Education as a work should be called on to do no more than to open to us English literature. In it we are to spend our days. We may well desire every advantage to be gotten from abroad in studying ourselves, but to direct our attention at once to ourselves will be so to narrow our lives that we shall never master them, nor judge them, nor know them. All the fertilizers of English thought and European thought through the past centuries have come from the classical world, a world that does not so much lie back of our world as possess its rejuvenescence, its renaissance in it. If we are to know our own this is the way in which we are to know it; we are to know ourselves abroad, and not at home merely.

The only possible background and relief and fellowship of our own lives are to be found in this life, other and older than ours. There is a kind of directness which is the worst indirection, a kind of indiscretion which is the wisest direction. A narrow spirit of use ceases even to be useful. Diverse and special things should lead us to general truths, little things to large things, and things remote to things near at hand.

Charles Francis Adams seems to have found much of the prompting to his bitter attack on classical study in the vexation of the discovery that he was unable to speak French or German. The power to use a language in speech is an accomplishment, rather than the result of that liberalizing process we term education. Instruction enables us to read a language, and enter into its literary work, whether we can move with fair facility among its vocables is a question of skill, a skill to be gained in early life or by a long sojourn abroad. To speak a language is a pleasant power, but it does not

stand for education. So also a mastery of modern languages, which opens them as storehouses of a scientific course, does not materially alter character of that course; does not give it a second leg on which to stand, wherewith to walk; does not introduce it to that other world of man of which it knows so very little.

The objector to classical study reiterates to weariness, that the student does not master his Greek; that the years erase it as something finished and done. No knowledge remains with us in its first form. Our mathematics recede into the dim distance. Our scientific facts lose outline in the mist of years; the instruction of childhood survives only by scraps. Have we, therefore, studied in vain? Have the years brought no progress? Is the intellectual chaos into which our acquisitions seem constantly slipping, only another form of ignorance? By no means. This impalpable knowledge surrounds us, as a chaos, that can, on occasion, be turned into creation; it yields incentives to every undertaking, suggestions to every thought, material to every fresh laid purpose. It is that which is just out of sight, quite as much as that which lies in clear vision, which is an attractive force in our thoughts. We may lament the things we have forgotten, but they are by no means to us as the things we have never known; any more than the spaces the strong bird leaves behind him are like those the weak winged one cannot pass over. This assertion is not truer in any direction than in that of language. Our mastery of our own language stands ready to absorb and save for us daily and hourly the knowledge we gain in other languages. No instruction can be made more suggestive, with a more extended or livelier play of light, than instruction in the classics. They are the throne seat of the wise master.

If then we are to resist the bias of our time, if we are to prefer knowledge to technical skill, insight to erudition, mind to matter, we must make much of language, and begin its study where language and history themselves began, bursting up in full volume and floating our modern epoch. It is plain why modern education thus far has been full of classical study; ours is but the second day of creation following close behind the first. It is also plain why science, the new birth of the modern era, should demand readjustment and admission among the heirs of the centuries. This claim is eminently fit, and is being rapidly conceded. There is no ground of dispute till science asserts "The whole inheritance is mine; up to this blessed moment men have been busily wasting their time on nothings; now I will give them a work and a method and a reward that shall be all sufficient." The audacity of this assertion should be its instant refutation. We have, of set purpose, touched this discussion a little airily and impalpably, because we believe this method after all the most just, as well as the most unanswerable. Science—in its narrow mood—expects to buy, with its three thousand ducats, a pound of flesh, no matter what blood it spills or life it

endangers. We have based our discussion on the higher principle, The life is more than meat.

If we turn directly to the practical question, What ought classical study to be able to retain in the present balance of knowledge? we shall not answer it differently from the way in which it is being answered in many institutions. We would offer co-ordinate classical and scientific courses and would bring to both the most vital instruction. Philology as a science offers our best opening into the early history of the race. The profession of the ministry can dispense neither with Greek nor Latin; while for the lawyer the early and sacred canons of his profession are found in the Latin, almost as much so as those of the ministry in the Greek. The physician has more to do with physical facts, and may, therefore, find a favoring discipline in the study of science; yet he easily suffers, and has often suffered, from the want of a due appreciation of the modifying force of mental and moral conditions. He, too, must have equal-handed knowledge, or he will fail on the one side or the other.

Those who seek an education as much for its intrinsic value as for its uses will certainly, many of them, prefer and justly prefer those studies which deal with the humanities to those which have to do with things. Decided tastes may often vary the choice, but to most men there is nothing so interesting and instructive as man himself. All whose tastes are literary or historic or social or philosophical will make language a leading factor in education.

The just demand for scientific instruction has frequently been met in the East by scientific schools, the colleges being so occupied with the old ways, as to give no sufficient entertainment to the new ones. In the West, the more recent origin of colleges has given the opportunity to combine various courses on equal terms from the outset. The separation of different lines of study and their union have each their peculiar advantage, the balance of gains, I think, lying in combination. The breadth of knowledge, the scope of thought, its many lines of correction, are best impressed upon the mind of the student in the university of large and varied development. Greatness grows great, and education owes much to contact, even remote contact, with vigorous and diversified forces. The antagonism between the two departments of knowledge is ready to pass into wholesome rivalry, and this result will tend to a healthy revival in philosophy, the pivotal point between the two. In the University of Wisconsin while the scientific courses have certainly been pursued with quite as much vigor and industry as the classical ones, the classical ones show a clear percentage of superiority, though not a large one, in successful rhetorical work. This fact is in accordance with the anticipations of theory. England and America can still say, all things considered, in the conservative spirit of Burke and in his own words, "After all, with the Gothic and monkish education (for

such it is in the groundwork) we may put in our claim to as ample and as early a share in all the improvements in science and arts and in literature, which have illuminated and adorned the modern world, as any other nation of Europe ; we think one cause of this improvement was our not despising the patrimony of knowledge which was left us by our forefathers."

This was followed by a discussion led by President Knapp, of Iowa Agricultural College.

PROFESSOR DREER, of Roanoke College, Va., inquired to what extent, in the colleges of the Northwest, was language taught by the "Natural Method?"

PRESIDENT BASCOM replied that in the University of Wisconsin, French and German are taught three years by the conversational method.

PROFESSOR DREER inquired whether the ancient languages are taught by this method.

PROFESSOR CANFIELD stated that in the University of Kansas, Latin is taught by the natural method.

PROFESSOR CHANDLER stated that as a result of his observation that in Scientific Associations the men who have the greatest influence are those who have had the classical in addition to scientific training. He approves of scientific training, but considers that classical studies should not be neglected.

On motion of President Folwell, adjourned.

PRESIDENT MOSS in chair.

WM. B. PAYNE, *Secretary pro tem.*

SUPERINTENDENCE DEPARTMENT.

CITY AND TOWN SUPERVISION OF SCHOOLS.

BY R. W. STEVENSON, ESQ.,

Superintendent of Schools, Columbus, Ohio.

Every State in the United States has now a system of common schools. Any community may organize a system of schools for the education of the youth, whether city, town, or country district, provided that it is in conformity with the general laws of the State in which it is located. The organization is effected by the election, by the people, of persons who shall constitute a board of education whose powers and duties are prescribed by the general or special laws of the several States. Among the powers delegated to boards in cities and towns is that providing for the election of a superintendent whose duties are defined by rules and regulations. From this board he derives his powers, and usually acts as the executive officer. The superintendent with his assistants and the principals of schools is called the administration.

When a board of education under its general control, commits the entire management to one officer, he is called the Superintendent of Schools; but when his powers and duties are limited to the selection of teachers, their assignment to grades, the organization of schools, classification of pupils, arrangement of course of study, oversight of methods of discipline and teaching, and all that pertains to the conduct of the schools, that the supreme purpose for which they have been established may be attained, he is called the Superintendent of Public Instruction. In some cities and towns the superintendent is nothing more than the business agent of the board. His duties are limited to writing and inspecting contracts, faithfully reporting to the board all failures of teachers to keep the pupils under proper control, seeing that all employes of the board give full time, and in case of failure see that the proper deduction of salaries is made, and keep himself informed of any rising danger of the decapitation of any

member of the board for whatever cause, keeping his finger on the public pulse of ward politicians and reporting the same at the earliest moment.

I propose to discuss this subject of supervision of city schools under the broadest accepted meaning of the term. In the sense, that the delegated powers of the superintendent are co-extensive with those of the board of education, and give him the oversight of all matters pertaining to school affairs which the law makes it the duty of a board of education to perform. The reason for employing a superintendent at all, lies in the inability of the members of a board to devote their time and attention without compensation, and their want of knowledge of the proper conduct of schools. Their good sense and business experience make it manifest to them that long study, peculiar qualifications, and experience in training youth, are necessary to the skilful and economic administration of a system of schools.

The creation of the office of superintendent and its adoption by cities and towns have greatly increased the efficiency of schools, by securing better qualified teachers, improved methods of instruction, more rational courses of study, better buildings and furniture, and greater economy in the management of school funds.

The superintendent should be a man of affairs. He becomes the counsellor of his board in matters involving large expenditures of money. This requires of him "a profound knowledge of the *things* of life, as well as the *ideas* of thought." He must have the sight of the clear-headed man of business; the good sense not to advise an expenditure of money beyond the ability of the people to pay, nor an amount which would make the management of the schools and the schools themselves odious to a majority of the people. He ought to know the financial ability of the people and their wishes. Good school buildings, comfortably furnished, roomy, well-ventilated, well kept, are necessary both for physical and æsthetic culture of the youth, and ought to be strongly recommended by a superintendent when he can clearly see that the means can be provided without oppressing the people or cooling their ardor and interest in public education.

The superintendent from his knowledge of the number of children and the localities of the city needing additional accommodations is in a position to advise intelligently. It often happens that a member of the board, backed by his constituency, asks for a school building to be erected in his ward for no other reason than the advancement of real estate and the satisfaction of doing something which he can point to with pride, and it may be to insure his return to the board or to increase his chances for higher political preferment. Other members may favor his project, on condition that he will help them in some expenditure equally useless. In this case the superintendent must not hesitate to do his duty. He can effect much by pouring into the board a steady fire of cold statistics. Again, elegant

structures rising three stories high will be demanded because they will be conspicuous objects and ornaments to localities in which they may stand, without due consideration of convenience, comfort, and adaptation. An empty treasury is often the result, and the teaching force must be reduced in quality and numbers. The superintendent knows that it is better to have plain but substantial buildings with good teachers, well paid, than magnificent structures..

I know there are persons in every community who do not keep up with enlightened progress, who believe that school buildings, any more costly, convenient, and comfortable than the shanties, seated with slabs, on which they learned the multiplication table, although they now live in marble palaces, are uselessly extravagant, and that teachers are worth no more than house servants. He is wise who avoids both extremes. Extravagance, even in a good cause, is always wrong; economy always right.

That superintendent is the best manager who can make his schools efficient in training the youth of his city or town, in all that pertains to genuine culture at the least possible expense. He ought to study economy and make investments like the shrewd man of business in that which will produce the best results.

If one thousand dollars can be saved in the mere outward adornments of a school building, and be spent for conveniences, apparatus, maps, charts, dictionaries, cyclopædias, pictures, supplementary reading, etc., etc., for the use of the teachers and children in the work of instruction, I am sure the money is applied to a better purpose. Or, if it is paid out for a first-class teacher, it is more wisely appropriated.

If a board of education should feel inclined to build a costly structure, on account of which it would be necessary to reduce the quality and number of the teaching force, so much as to interfere with the best interests of the school, even for one year, the superintendent would act wisely if he advised the erection of a much cheaper structure, or postponement, that the schools might be kept up to the highest degree of usefulness. He would do a better work for a city or town to give it a first-class teacher at one thousand dollars per year who would be compelled to do her work in the basement of a dilapidated church, than to give the city an elegant building and a fourth rate teacher at five hundred dollars per year.

How shall the school funds be appropriated that the best results may be reached for buildings, tuition, and incidentals? If retrenchment becomes necessary, where can it be made with the least injury to the schools? How can the available funds be used with the greatest advantage to the educational interests of the city or town? These are grave questions and will ever be uppermost in the mind of a wise and thoughtful superintendent. His answer to them may antagonize members of his board, but he should not on account of fear, nor for the sake of harmony, turn his eye from the

one object—the best possible expenditure of the money. For this work a superintendent is not fitted by his training and experience as a teacher. For this reason few men, every way competent to manage the department of instruction, are well qualified to direct wisely and economically the business affairs of a system of schools.

But important and vital as is the work of providing accommodations for the youth of a growing city, and the economical appropriation of the school funds, that they may be used for the promotion of the health and comfort of the children; the supervision of instruction is, after all, the great burden of his work. This is the end; all other work is the means.

The observation of the superintendent in his first visit to the schools reveals to him the startling fact that he has many inexperienced and incompetent teachers, and, what is worse, old teachers in ruts so deep they cannot be reached. Many have had no professional training, nor have they given any thought to the subject of teaching. His first thought may be to organize his teachers into classes and to undertake the work of training them for their daily duties. This he may do, but after all it is a dangerous experiment. It is a hot-bed process of making teachers. Some who possess rare faculties for imitating may become passable teachers of subjects the superintendent has presented. It is narrowing in its tendency.

When one supply of information is exhausted they go to the superintendent for another, never dreaming that it is possible for them to use their own brains in originating methods and adapting them to the capacities of their children. There is danger of making the teachers dull and mechanical. They will teach by a pattern, and with or without one, they will in the end become formal and lifeless instructors—givers of instruction without thought—chaff without wheat. In this case, the knowledge of the superintendent, not only in his acquaintance with the subject, but in his methods and manner of presenting them, marks the highest point to be reached by the teachers. They learn to look to him, to depend upon him, the idea never occurring to them that in their particular and special work they ought to be original investigators, and in time become practically better informed in these special subjects than the superintendent. By this method of preparing teachers, the superintendent is likely to be depended upon for all the thinking.

And is there not sometimes danger that he will so manifest his preference and emphasize his desire to have the teachers pursue his particular methods of managing and giving instruction that even the teachers who do think and believe that they could accomplish more in some other way are deterred from using their own well-thought-out plans and methods because they feel they must follow in detail the directions of their superior? Does not a superintendent sometimes, unintentionally it may be, discourage thought and investigation and make those who might become self-

reliant and skilful teachers mere reflectors, and not the brilliant, self-illuminating originals they would be to the little world of beings looking to them for light? Can a teacher who does not think make thinkers? Can the moon by any amount of reflected light ever become a luminous body? Can the child ever learn to walk by watching the perambulations of the mother? Teachers who are crammed in methods not studied out and made their own, may become indifferent school-keepers, but surely they can never become enthusiastic and progressive educators. They may accumulate many valuable facts about the science and art of teaching, but this and the experience of a score of years can never increase their power to start the germ of thought into steady and healthy growth. The mechanic will not work with pleasure and freedom with the tools of another; the teacher will not with the exact pattern and methods of another.

He who believes he has conceived a new method, or originated a new idea, burns with enthusiasm, and will impress others, and move to respect and attention. I believe we would have more good teachers and the children would be better trained, if more was done to enable the teachers to see clearly the extent of their work, its limitations, the results to be obtained, and were thrown upon their own resources in the methods they use. I know we should, if the teachers could be aroused to thoughtful and thorough study of the principles of education, developing for themselves methods adapted to child mind and child nature. If they fail to obtain the reasonable results which have been required, the fault is then clearly their own; they are consciously incompetent for the work they assumed to do.

But suppose the superintendent tells his teachers numbers must be taught in this way, reading, language, penmanship, etc., this, and they attempt to follow his methods; they are robbed of their independence; their energies are spent in imitating their superior's prescribed methods and forms, and they finally fail because they tried to be another and not themselves. With a show of justice, at least, they may attribute their failure to the narrow restrictions of the superintendent. They may have attended the best training schools for teachers, studied long and thoroughly the history, science, and art of education, and under such restrictions make a miserable failure. Indeed, the greater their abilities, the deeper they have thought, the more original they are, the stronger they are in themselves mentally and morally, the greater will be the probability of failure when they have stepped out of their own individuality.

It is plainly the duty of the superintendent to suggest and to criticise, to discuss all school work in a spirit of candor and with firmness, but not to force the acceptance of his views. If teachers could be made to feel that they must be prepared for the work of teaching *before* they begin to teach, and not to depend upon the superintendent and principals for instruction *after* they have begun, there would be fewer and worthier

aspirants to important positions in the public schools of the country. Did you ever hear a teacher who had failed say in substance, "Of course I didn't know how to teach arithmetic or grammar, or how to govern a school, you never taught me how, if you had I need not have failed?" If teachers are engaged with the understanding that their knowledge of teaching is to be gained by trifling for a year with fifty or sixty boys and girls, and under the tuition of the superintendent, then their failure may with some show of justice be attributed to him. The poor children pay the bill for instruction at a fearful cost.

This is a very expensive way of making teachers. It is avoided in many cities and towns by the establishment of normal or training schools. Teachers should be made to understand that they assume wholly the responsibility of failure or success. The hints, suggestions, counsel, and methods given by the superintendent should in no way interfere with the individuality and freedom of the teacher. In my judgment it is no part of his duty to instruct his teachers either in the branches of study, or how to teach them; this knowledge they ought to have acquired before making application for the position of teachers. This need not prevent the correction of blunders, inaccuracy of statement, illogical deductions, and false notions of manners and morals.

A superintendent should advise and instruct his teachers, and present to them what he conceives to be the true methods of instruction and discipline, but to require his teachers to follow them all in detail is quite a different thing. What would be thought of a system of schools, where in the same grade of forty schools, each teacher was required to teach the same subject in precisely the same way not varying in the least particular. There may not be any schools of this description, but I can conceive of such where teachers would be compelled to pursue one prescribed method. I can see too how a teacher, in her efforts to follow a method not her own, but prescribed by her superior for whom he had a very high regard, would have more anxiety about whether or not he fully comprehended his superior's method and was using it just in accordance with the model, than he would have about the good he was doing his pupils by eliciting thought and developing mind. An estimate of a teacher's ability should be formed not from the amount of information he may have given his pupils but from the substantial mental growth he has stimulated.

To illustrate what I mean: Take two schools of the same grade, and composed of pupils of about the same home influences and natural endowments; give the same written test to ascertain their knowledge of the subjects studied. You see that the questions requiring little thought and an exercise of memory are all answered by one school; in the other, you find the memory is sometimes at fault, but you observe the questions requiring thought are answered, perhaps, not all accurately, but there is abundant

evidence that the pupils have thought. You apply in the one an oral test, you find the pupils answer at every question, right or wrong, without taking one moment for thought; in the other, all the pupils give the closest attention to the questions you put to them—all are evidently thinking; here and there a little hand indicates a wish to have a question repeated—not one *is guessing*, all *are thinking*; eyes soon begin to sparkle; hand after hand is raised; your question is thoughtfully answered. You feel that every pupil is stronger than a moment before. You would agree at once as to which of the two teachers had the greater ability as an educator. The place of the one could be filled by the high school girl of seventeen; the other, you would search for among teachers of large experience.

The superintendent must be a man of remarkable attainments, or his teachers persons of exceedingly meagre acquirements, if there are none who do not know more about many things than himself. Suppose he has in the high school a teacher who has given years of hard and successful study to particular branches, and the *how* to teach them—he is a bold, original thinker, who, by his own investigations and the scholarship of his pupils, has given the best evidence that they have caught the spirit of their master, would the independence of such a teacher allow him to remain one day longer in a school, if compelled to work by a prescribed method dictated by another? If the superintendent would not interfere with him, why interfere with a primary teacher who has like skill and attainments for her particular department?

In my judgment, he is the wisest and most successful manager of a system of schools, who, depending not wholly upon his own knowledge and ability, has the power to concentrate the skill, intelligence, and energies of his teachers, and to bring them to bear upon the work to be accomplished. One teacher has talent running in one direction; another, in another; they should be assigned so as to find the particular work for which they have special gratification and natural gifts; the result will be, that, instead of one brain doing all the thinking for the schools, as many brains as there are teachers are ever active in lines of thought they love to follow. These enthusiastic, earnest, and thoughtful teachers will infuse their pupils with the same spirit.

To bring out the talent, intelligence, and energy of a corps of teachers, and so direct and use it with the loss of no power, is indeed a rare faculty. A corps of teachers may have sufficient knowledge and ability to accomplish much, to do the work well in every grade of a system of schools, which, if misdirected and misemployed by the superintendent, will utterly fail.

The organization and classification of a system of schools according to a well-arranged course of study, is work belonging to the superintendent, and lies at the very threshold of success. In the course of instruction

both the time and the work must be carefully considered. To require teachers and pupils to perform in one year what experience has taught requires two would defeat the whole plan. Nature in mental as well as in physical development must have time.

Whether promotions should be made once or twice a year, I shall not discuss. Every child should be placed in the grade for which he is qualified, and when ready to go up higher he should be promoted with promptness. Whether this is effected by two classes in a grade, or by semi-annual promotions is of little moment, so that the steps are short enough to be easily made, and that the dull children shall not hold back the bright ones. The object is to make the course sufficiently flexible as to accommodate itself to the mental and physical condition of all the children in a grade. That this should be done superintendents agree, but disagree as to the manner of doing it.

A superintendent who wishes to be of the greatest possible service to his teachers and their pupils, should keep himself informed as to the subjects which are taught in the different departments and know what topics and when they are under consideration in the respective grades. He cannot be an intelligent critic, nor a useful counsellor unless he is familiar with the results and the processes by which they are obtained. This knowledge he can gain in two ways, viz., by personal observation and oral tests, and by written examinations, but neither one of itself is sufficient, both are necessary to a complete knowledge. By observing the teacher in the conduct of class exercises and by applying oral tests he can arrive at a tolerably accurate knowledge of the character of the instruction and the value of the training. In the large cities, however, he is compelled to depend largely upon his subordinates for the necessary information. He cannot visit every school, nor perhaps every building of a score of schools; from a partial inspection and from the reports of honest and competent assistants and principals he must form a judgment upon which to base his action.

If the superintendent has his schools well in hand, the application of a written test will make to him revelations which may cause him to make radical changes of which he had not before dreamed. The questions should be prepared by him, and should be limited in the ground they cover by the minimum amount the course of study requires. I have not the time within the limits of this paper to discuss the value of written examinations and the frequency of their occurrence, farther than to say, in addition to what many *very wise* and *very otherwise* have said, that properly used, they are indispensable—they are the goad for the lazy, the reward for the industrious, and the crown of glory for the gifted and ambitious. When soldiers know that a battle will occur, they give willing attention to drills, look well to their arms, are keen-sighted, vigilant, and active; so children are stim-

ulated, made sharp, wide-awake, and active by a prospective examination. If the "New Education" means no examinations, no recesses, no systematic and connected study, work for the teacher and none for the child, I am not prepared to give up the old and adopt the new.

It is not an unusual thing for superintendents of city systems of schools to be called in the public press machine men, men who treat children as a mechanic would a pile of boards he runs through a planer. Their systems are iron-clad—children are dealt with in masses—individualities are ignored. How much truth there is in this, I am not prepared to say. Every system of schools, on account of system, is liable to the charge whether true or false, therefore superintendents should by some means guard against it. The best remedy is to reduce the number of children under each teacher to twenty-five or thirty. This, however, would be so expensive that cities could not adopt it without jeopardizing the whole system of public education.

The relation of a superintendent to the teachers under him is one of extreme delicacy. He is liable to be misunderstood, misrepresented, and misjudged. Good-feeling, harmony, and co-operation are among the first elements of success. These must be secured at all hazards; discord among the teachers in even a separate building of a dozen schools must not be tolerated. It has been my practice for many years to transfer to another building any teacher not on good terms socially and professionally with associate teachers.

The work of a superintendent is also political in its character. He ought to be a politician. I do not mean in any partisan sense, nor in the common acceptance of that term; but in the sense of one versed in the science of government and earnestly seeking the welfare of the State. The public school is a political institution. It is established and fostered by the State. Through it the State seeks her best and truest interest and strongest guaranty for liberty and happiness, to wit: the intelligence and morality of the people. In each State a system of education is established by law; and boards of education and schoolmasters are the appointed officers to carry into execution the provisions of the law. School officers and teachers, therefore, stand within the arena of politics. It is a matter worthy of note, and creditable to political parties of every name, that while they have stood face to face for and against certain State and national measures, the question of public education has never been one of any single party.

The recent debate in the Senate of the United States on the Education bill is an example showing that the advancement of education is no party measure. Good and great men of all parties have been the advocates of our systems of public schools. They believe the political questions involving the educational interests of the people of this country transcend all

others in importance, because the national life depends upon what they are and how liberally they are sustained. The qualifications which the future men and women of this country will possess for good citizenship, depend upon our systems of public instruction and the morality and patriotism of teachers. Who are the men best qualified to determine what provisions ought to be made for the education of American youth? Surely they are not narrow-minded, partisan politicians who are actuated by mere selfish motives. They are the men who, comprehending the truth, "The life of the government is the intelligence of the people," know what legislation is needed. Those personally connected with the public schools know best the defects in school laws, and are best qualified to prescribe the remedies.

The range of the powers and duties of a superintendent is widely extended, yet limited. His own good sense is the boundary of his actions. He is a teacher and at the same time a thorough man of business—a plain, straightforward man, candid, conciliatory, out-spoken, yet a keeper of his own counsels, and inflexible in his purposes. A man with a big heart, yet oftentimes his actions will appear to the community cruel, heartless. A man who could give the fullest and most satisfactory explanation of his conduct, and the most valid reasons for his acts, but on account of the general good he is silent. The teacher's true friend, in her absence; in her presence, often her apparent enemy. As the manager of finance, shrewd, economical, and liberal; as the superintendent of instruction, scholarly, judicious, systematic, and comprehensive; and as a politician, discreet, active, fearless, and patriotic.

INDUSTRIAL DEPARTMENT.

A LAYMAN'S VIEW OF MANUAL TRAINING.

BY COL. AUGUSTUS JACOBSON.

I.

The Secretary of the Interior, Mr. Teller, says, "that if all the Indian children could have the moderate education which is given to only a few of them at Carlisle Barracks, there would never be another Indian war." Leaving out of view all considerations of humanity, how much cheaper it would be to educate the Indians than it is to shoot them. It costs about \$1000 to train an Indian. It costs the lives of ten white men, and at least \$25,000 to shoot one.

If all the Mormon children could have a complete high school education there would soon be an end of polygamous Mormonism. Do you think the graduates of a high school would become plural wives? Polygamy is possible only with extremely ignorant women. It is possible only with the most ignorant women found in this country and it thrives best of all with European peasant women, because to them even the polygamy of Utah is a promotion.

If all the children in the land could have a high school education there would be far less drunkenness than there is. The average man drinks in proportion to his ignorance. The savage drinks all he can get. In drinking, the ignorant man in civilized life follows closely upon the heels of the savage. Intelligence develops tastes for better things which conquer the brutal appetite for strong drink.

No foreign power can imperil this Republic. Our dangers are all from within, and our dangers are all from ignorance. Only in great general intelligence is there safety to the State. Our great war, the fire and bloodshed in Pittsburgh in 1877, and in Cincinnati this very year, all tell us that at any cost it is safer, wiser, better, and cheaper to train good citizens than it is to shoot bad ones.

The people are all ready to support a higher education. Commerce and industry profit by every step in the elevation of man. Where men are ignorant and unskilled there is no commerce. The savage is not commercial. He is a poor customer. He has nothing to sell, and, therefore, he can buy nothing. The unskilled ignorant laborer in a civilized country

is likewise a poor customer. He can earn but little, and, therefore, he can buy but little. The higher men rise in skill and intelligence the better customers they are. With every step in the elevation of man commerce and industry increase. Commerce and industry, therefore, favor the highest possible elevation of all men.

The wealth of a nation depends upon its skill. Before the invention of canoes, fishing nets, bows and arrows, savages are uncomfortably and pitifully poor. Without tools with which to get food they are always liable to starve. With the invention of canoes and nets, fishing gives them food and lessens their liability to starve. With the invention of bows and arrows, hunting gives them food, and with a little agriculture in addition, they become reasonably secure from starvation. This human comfort depends upon human skill. A nation with little skill is poor. A nation with great skill is rich. Steam is the principal tool of modern times, and the nations are getting rich in proportion to their skill in using it. England is the foremost nation for skill in using steam, and England is the foremost nation in acquiring wealth. We are next to England for skill in using steam and we are next to England in getting rich. There are only fifty-five millions of us, but steam does the work of probably five hundred millions more. The result is an increase of wealth within our borders such as the world has never before seen.

A Spaniard, or a Turk, has only one pair of hands for producing things. By means of steam an Englishman has, industrially, ten pairs of hands. An American, in like manner, has ten pairs of hands. Eventually, skill and intelligence will bring us for every man a hundred pairs instead of ten pairs of hands. Every advance in skill increases the comfort of every man, woman, and child in the community, and, hence, increase of skill is worth struggling for.

A hundred years ago nineteen out of twenty men in this country were farmers. The proportion of farmers to the whole population has decreased every day since. It is now decreasing every day. The proportion of men engaged in the industrial arts has increased correspondingly, and is now increasing every day.

As improvements multiply in agricultural machinery, a greater number of men can go into industrial pursuits and still leave the supply of food ample. The McCormick Reaper, alone, has liberated from farming millions of men. There is only just so much use for agricultural products. When a man has had enough to eat he does not wish any more. Enough is enough. It will be said that "we have a European market for all we can raise of agricultural products." That notion is as antiquated as a flint-lock musket. This year we have had no European market worth mentioning. The European market is getting to be more and more unreliable every year. India and Australia are already pressing us with their

wheat. The Soudan and South America will soon begin to compete with India and Australia. As machinery and means of transportation improve it will not do for us to rely upon Providence to ruin the crops in Europe to make us prosperous.

Industrial products, on the contrary, are unlike bread, of which enough is enough. Of industrial products we want all those that we know of, we want all those that we have heard of, and we want all those that we have never seen and never heard of as fast as they can be invented. Alexander, the Great, never craved a fine watch, simply because watches were not then in existence. Had they existed, Alexander would have wanted the very best watch that could be made. Our great-grandmothers never wanted sewing-machines, simply because to them sewing-machines were inconceivable. Thirty years ago we never thought of riding in sleeping-cars, because there were none. A valuable invention, as soon as it is known, becomes an article of pressing necessity. We can never get a sufficient variety of industrial products. Our industrial wants are bounded only by the limits to human invention.

The destinies of the ancient world were moulded by soldiers and war. The ancient world came to an end, and the modern world began with the steam-engine. The destinies of the modern world are moulded by mechanics and machinery. Our nation of fifty-five millions is the offspring of the steam-engine. Only by means of steam could the many millions have been carried across the Atlantic and scattered all over the land.

The representative man of the ancient world was the proud, fierce warrior, steel-clad, sabred, booted and spurred, who made of the average man a cripple or a corpse. The representative man of to-day is the fustian-clad, humble, greasy mechanic, who makes this a comfortable world to live in. To the proud warrior belongs the dead past with all its exploded stupidities. To the humble artisan belongs the great future with all the hopes of humanity.

II.

Our political and industrial necessities are intelligence and skill.

At present the majority of children are taken away from school early in order to learn to gain their livelihood. Millions are thus kept in life-long ignorance. Parents take their children from school early now not only to avoid the expense of keeping them there, but often because parents fail to see that more schooling would make their children better bread-winners. It is only reasonable to suppose that if the children could be taught at school more of that which would help them to gain their livelihood, parents would make far greater sacrifices than now to keep them there longer.

Our need is something which shall keep the children at school throughout the public course including the high school. This want is, as I believe, to be supplied by the Manual Training School. The Manual Training School is simply a high school with the manual feature added. The manual feature can be added to any high school. From the experience we have already had, we know that the manual feature added to the high school course will fill the high schools and necessitate their multiplication. The high schools are not full, but the Manual Training Schools, in spite of high tuition fees, are full to overflowing. They are full of boys of whom at least one-third would not have been in any school but for the manual training. When the curriculum of the Manual Training School, which embodies the production of superior bread-winning qualities, together with high mental training, shall in the public high school free of charge become the birth-right of every child in the land, it will become clear to all that more schooling will make better bread-winners. The bread-winning training will lure parents and children, and it will lure the children into superior intelligence. If the Manual Training School had no other justification, it would be amply justified by its tendency to keep boys at school till the age of sixteen or seventeen. Keeping the boys at school till that age would give us intelligent citizens. It would raise immensely the general intelligence of the people.

To the extent of their numbers the boys who complete the course of the Manual Training School do away with the dangers which come from ignorance, and they add to the commonwealth the safety which inheres in self-reliant, intelligent citizens. If the safety of the Republic lies in intelligent citizens, the safety of the Republic lies in multiplying the Manual Training School by thousands throughout the land.

The apprentice system was the old method for training skilled artisans, but of late years the trades unions have not permitted apprentices to be taught. This is not to be regretted because the apprentice system would have died anyhow. Steam is fatal to the apprentice system and would have, single-handed, killed it. In a shop where steam is used it costs too much to make the wheels go round to permit an unskilled apprentice to use the tools. Nobody but a skilled workman can be permitted to use the money-eating tools driven by steam. Between the trades unions and steam, the apprentice system has died.

There is no place where an American boy can learn a trade except the penitentiary.

The Manual Training School fills the place of the apprentice system. It much more than fills the place. It fills the place as the locomotive fills the place of the stage-coach. In other words, the Manual Training School fills the place of the apprentice system a thousand times over. The apprentice in a shop is a hewer of wood and a drawer of water, the last and least

important individual in the shop. In the Manual Training School, on the contrary, the boy is the most important individual. He is the object for which the school exists. He is the material that is to be finished. Instead of being left to himself, to pick up what he can, competent and intelligent instructors devote themselves to his training. As an apprentice, the boy exists for the benefit of the shop. As a scholar in a Manual Training School, the shop exists for the benefit of the boy.

The Manual Training School teaches no particular trade. It teaches the rudiments of all the trades. At first blush it would seem impossible to teach a boy in three years, two hours each school day, the rudiments of all the trades. The difficulty is smaller than it seems. There are only seven hand tools, the ax, the saw, the plane, the hammer, the square, the chisel, and the file. The graduate of a Manual Training School has not learned a particular trade, but he is within from one to three months of knowing quite as thoroughly as an apprentice who had served years, any one of twenty trades to which he may choose to turn. Having learned the use of all the tools, he can easily turn to any modification of them which he may need in any employment. He is a superior draughtsman. He has an intelligence far beyond that of the average artisan, and the three years apprenticeship is in no wise to be compared with him. If thrown out of one employment by the invention of a machine, the graduate of a Manual Training School can easily turn to any other employment. The boy who has learned the use of all the tools has found out his bias, if he has any, and he can then go in the direction in which he is at his best. He need not go all through life working at a trade for which he is ill-fitted. The intelligence and diversity of skill acquired in the Manual Training School makes the boy a superior workman in any employment.

The drudgery of the apprentice tends to stupefy him. All work and no play make Jack a dull boy. While the manual training requires as close attention as any study, it is, nevertheless, so complete a change from studying a book that in the midst of study it is in the nature of diversion and recreation. Was there ever a boy who did not delight in tools? The boys in the Chicago Manual Training School asked for a holiday Washington's birthday, and having obtained it, they immediately asked for permission to spend their holiday in the carpenter shop of the school.

Of course nothing can make a bright boy out of a dull boy, but there are bright boys not easily kept down to study who gladly swallow the bitter pill of study by reason of the delight which they take in the manual training. The editor-in-chief of one of the St. Louis daily papers told me not long ago that he had never been able to keep his boy in any school until he sent him to the St. Louis Manual Training School, but that now the boy cannot be kept away, and wishes that school kept Saturday and Sunday. It may be said with truth both of bright boys and of dull boys,

that the Manual Training School has a wider reach of allurements for their faculties than any other school hitherto known.

The skill acquired in the Manual Training School is so valuable that it is not necessary to show that the mental progress of the scholar is as great as if he devoted all his time to study. But those who should know, say, that the mental progress is as great as if all the time were devoted to the study of books. There is nothing absurd about supposing that four and one-half hours of mental work and two hours of manual training may produce quite as good mental results as six and one-half hours of continuous book study. Surely nobody will question that the mental training must help the manual training. I see as little reason to doubt that the manual may help the mental training. In the Manual Training School there is not a word spoken nor a thing done except with a view to education.

Mr. Goss, of Purdue University, Indiana, well says that manual training is mental training by hand practice. He says that he considers an hour in the shop as valuable for intellectual training as an hour of book study and two hours in the shop as valuable as two hours of study.

What manual training teachers say is that, well on this side of the point where weariness begins, manual training is equal to books for producing mental growth. In a manual training lesson of two hours the average boy of fourteen keeps up a lively interest. Three hours would probably fatigue him. Carried beyond the point up to which a lively interest can be maintained a lesson in manual training is like any other lesson given to a fatigued scholar, a mere waste of time. Opponents of manual training disingenuously ask if two hours of manual training produce as good mental results as two hours given to books, why will not three hours, why will not four hours, why will not five hours, why will not six hours of manual training produce as good mental results as a like number of hours given to books? The question may be fairly answered by asking: If three meals a day are beneficial, why not six meals, why not twelve meals, why not twenty-four meals a day? If eight hours of sleep are beneficial, why not sixteen hours, why not twenty-four hours, why not sleep all the time?

Dr. Belfield, of the Chicago Manual Training School, says: "My opinion is, that an hour in the shop of a well-conducted Manual Training School develops as much mental strength as an hour devoted to Virgil or Legendre." "I am satisfied," he further says, "that three years of a Manual Training School will give at least as much purely intellectual growth as three years of the ordinary high school, because every school hour, whether spent in the class room, the drawing room or in the shop, is an hour devoted to intellectual training." "I am convinced," he also adds, "that the Manual Training School boy's comprehension of

some essential branches of knowledge will be as far superior to that of the other boys, as the realization of the grandeur and beauty of the Alps to the man who has seen their glories is superior to the conception of him who has merely read of them."

The testimony of all teachers who have had experience in manual training is to the same effect. Pestalozzi, Froebel, their thousands of followers, the teachers of the thousands of Sloyd Schools in Sweden and Finland, Prof. Woodward of the St. Louis Manual Training Schools—all tell the same story.

The Manual Training School has come and it has come to stay. For purposes of industry men will abandon the Manual Training School method when they abandon the locomotive and go back to the stage coach.

Mr. Foley, who was for many years an instructor of forging, vise work and machine tool work in the Boston Mechanic Art School, before becoming an instructor, had served an apprenticeship of seven years, and had worked at his trade for several years. Mr. Foley has seen and tried both methods and knows whereof he speaks. He says: It appears like throwing away two or three years of one's life to spend them in attaining a knowledge of a business that can be acquired by a proper course of instruction in 120 hours. The dexterity that comes from practice can be reached as quickly after the 120 hours instruction as after two or more years spent as an apprentice under the adverse circumstances of ordinary apprenticeship.

This is a matter in which industry is interested and for 1-64 of a cent industry will overrun the world. Don't tell me that a time-saving, money-getting, industrial generation is going to abandon the twelve weeks method, two hours each day, five days each week and take up with the method which requires three years. Don't tell me that this generation is going to abandon the method of 120 hours and take up with the method of 9000 hours.

III.

Skill with small intelligence increases very slowly. Coupled with great intelligence skill increases very rapidly. A century makes very little difference in the skill of a tribe of Indians. Their intelligence is too limited. But look at the amazing increase of our skill during the last hundred years. What an increase of skill there would be if henceforth all the children could be educated in Manual Training Schools! During our war no man of sense wanted one of our armies to be commanded by a volunteer. From first to last on both sides the West Pointers stood at the head. What West Point is to the army, the Manual Training School will become to industry, and more, because it will train not only the officers of industry, but likewise the rank and file. When this shall come to pass

there will be no more tariff agitation in this country, because the skill developed will of itself forever put an end to all foreign competition upon American soil.

Am I overstating the effect upon industry of manual training? It can't be overstated. Thirty years ago the French bought all their cotton goods in England. They then bought English machinery, brought over English workmen to run it, established a training school for the cotton industry at Mulhouse, and now the finest cotton goods used in England and in this country are made in France. To sixpence worth of cotton the French add so much skilled labor that we pay them a dollar for it. They buy of us the raw material and sell us back the finished product. To use the time-honored illustration, they buy of us the hide for a sixpence and sell us back the tail for a shilling. In like manner has France obtained control of her own market for watches by establishing a school for the watch industry at Besancon. There are trade schools in every large city of France; nearly every industry has its special schools, and these schools are increasing not only in France but all over Europe. In fact, within the last ten years the Germans have been gaining upon the French by means of technical schools.

As an illustration of the effect of persistent training look at Germany as a military power. Up to and including the battle of Jena, in 1806, a German army came upon the field only to look at Napoleon's columns, throw down their arms and run. Then began the movement for training soldiers that would not run. They were trained first in schools, then in barracks, and now behold Germany the first military power in the world—the vanquished of Jena become the victors of Sedan. The same conquering attitude is open to us industrially. It is all the more open to us because our people are already more intelligent than any other. If we would conquer in industry, we must train our industrial armies.

The Manual Training School reverses the cry that to compete in the markets of the world, our labor must come down. The Manual Training School says, on the contrary, that workingmen must go up higher. The meaning and intention of the Manual Training School movement is that workingmen shall become more intelligent, more skilful, do better work, and earn more money. The Manual Training School reaches the gospel of the blue ribbon. Mr. Perrot of Switzerland came to this country in 1876, to exhibit his machinery for making watches. Landing in New York he hastened to Philadelphia, to secure a place to show his wares. He was assigned space next to that of the Waltham Watch Company. He took just one look at the Waltham machinery, and then he telegraphed back to his agent in New York, not to permit his own machinery to be landed, but to send it back to Europe by the ship in which it had come. In the autumn Mr. Perrot went back to Switzerland and told his country-

men that American workmen earned three times as much as Swiss workmen, but that by reason of the intelligence and skill of American workmen they were well worth their triple wages, and that high as were their wages, that Switzerland could never again hope to sell watches in the American market. We could not, if we would, compete in making labor come down. Europe can easily beat us at that. The downward competition is not open to us. I hope we shall never try to enter upon it. But with its despotisms and its armies, its debts and its ignorance, Europe has no chance in the upward competition. We can, if we will, raise the intelligence and skill of American workingmen so that our industries shall be above all competition. For a nation, as well as for an individual, there is always room higher up.

Some time ago one of my friends told me of a mill in New England which made muslin selling at twelve cents a yard. By making it of a checkered pattern at an infinitesimally additional expense it sold quite as readily for twenty-two cents. At twelve cents the plain muslin had to compete with the plain muslin of the whole world. With a little originality of design added, it stood alone, by itself, without competition. "What do you mix with your colors?" was asked of the painter. "Brains," said the master, "brains." The more brains we mix with our industry the better it pays. Industry pays just in proportion as it is mixed with brains.

Our industries are waiting for more skill. They are willing to pay and they can afford to pay any reasonable price for it. A few years ago we made in this country scarcely any carpets. Now we make so many carpets that we import scarcely any. But we still buy abroad the higher grades of carpets. The carpet industry fails as yet in originality of design and the highest grade of workmanship. Within the last five years the silk industry has tripled in this country. But we still buy abroad the higher grades of silks. Both the carpet and the silk industries are waiting for the designers and fine workmen who do not yet exist but whom the Manual Training School must start on their career.

The advantage in diversified employments is like the advantage there is in not carrying all one's eggs in one basket. Skill breeds diversity of employment, and the more diversity of employment there is the fewer will there be of strikes and lockouts. If the men who are now engaged in making carpets and silks were still engaged in making cotton cloth, there would be an immediate over-production of cotton cloth and a strike and a lockout. The Manual Training School creates skill. Skill increases and multiplies and produces diversity of employment. Diversity of employment prevents strikes and lockouts. The Manual Training School does not train mere mechanics. The mere mechanic is a man with only one skill. Any day a machine may come and do the only thing he can do.

When the mechanic's one employment fails him he is helpless. Not so with the boy educated in the Manual Training School. Helplessness is not in his vocabulary. By applying his brains and his eyes and his hands to books, to tools, to wood, and to iron he has learned the great lesson of power. He has learned to think and he has learned to put his thought into things. His brain has learned to plan and his hands have learned to do what his brain plans. He has learned that things will yield and he has learned how to make them yield. His intelligence and his skill fill him with power. The boy educated in the Manual Training School is to the ordinary mechanic what Jay-Eye-See is to an ordinary plow horse.

There is always room higher up. There are never too many Daniel Websters practising law. There are never too many Henry Ward Beechers preaching. There are never too many 2.10 1-4 trotting horses. But with common lawyers, common preachers, and common horses the market is glutted. It does not pay to raise them.

So far as human problems are solvable, they are solvable by intelligence and skill. One thousand Manual Training Schools in the land would solve not only the question of strikes and lockouts, but they would solve the whole capital and labor problem. Communism might solve the capital and labor problem for a week, or a month, or a year, and then we should have the same problem back again. But the Manual Training Schools would solve the capital and labor problem permanently by doing away with it. For the boys educated in the Manual Training Schools there will be no capital and labor problem. Wherever they go they will be able to achieve for themselves their due share of the good things of this world. What we need to solve the problem, is not a communistic distribution of property, which would not do it; but what we must have to solve the capital and labor problem effectually and permanently is the greatest possible distribution of individual power and individual ability to acquire property. The greater the number of men who have property of their own the smaller will be the number of men who will wish to divide things.

IV.

The objection is made to manual training that it would establish class distinctions. It is said that if a boy learns the use of tools, he will necessarily follow the pursuit of a mechanic and thereby be debarred from rising in the world. Many men are kept down in the world by ignorance and want of skill, but I have never yet seen any man or heard of any man who was kept down by knowledge and skill. Manual training is not for the poor only. In the Manual Training Schools now in existence, the well-to-do and the wealthy are fully represented. The rich can no more afford to do without this training than can the poor. The boy who is going to in-

herit houses and lands, if he wants to keep them, can no more afford to do without this training than can the boy who is born poor and must acquire his own houses and lands. The men engaged in commerce and industry see the advantage such training would have been to them could they have had it. They will never permit their children to go without it. Is there a farmer who would not be a better farmer with this training? Is there a physician who would not be a better physician with it? Is there a lawyer who would not be a better lawyer with it? Is there any man, rich or poor, engaged in any pursuit, to whom this training would not be an advantage?

Our cities are full of wealthy men who were once bakers, saddlers, shoemakers, and what not, and who have obtained their wealth by business growing out of their respective trades. Other wealthy men I know who were farmers' boys and worked on farms till they were beyond the age at which a boy would ordinarily complete the course in the Manual Training School. Neither the knowledge of mechanic trades nor of farming has kept these men from the very front rank of commerce and industry. Their knowledge of tools and of farming has not graded them down. It has helped them up, as all knowledge does. To say that to teach a boy the use of tools will force him to become a mechanic, is like saying that if I have my boy taught to dance he must become a dancing master; if I have him taught to fence, to box, to skate, he must earn his bread by these accomplishments; if I have him taught to ride he must become a cavalryman or a cowboy. The Manual Training School educates boys, not to become mechanics, but to become men of intelligence and skill. It educates them so that they may have open to them a wider field of employment than they could have in any other way. It educates them so that they may have open to them all employments.

We are asked: "Shall we train 500,000 mechanics where only 50,000 can find employment?" Again the answer to this question is, that the education of the Manual Training School is not a mere training of mechanics. The education of the Manual Training School will be just as serviceable for the 450,000 scholars who are not to be mechanics, as it will be for the 50,000 who are to be mechanics. We are told that in our education we must emphasize the man and not the mechanic. Which plan puts the greater emphasis on the man—the plan which educates the young only by means of books, or the plan which gives them an equal knowledge of books and a wide range of practical skill besides?

We are told that the practical education is not of the hand to skill, but of the brain to directive intelligence. Which plan is likely to produce the greater degree of intelligence,—the plan under the operation of which the children drop out of school at the age of ten or twelve, only a very few reaching the high school, or the manual training plan, which would

keep the children at school through all the grades, and get them into and through the high school? Manual training never means less education or less intelligence. Manual training always means more education and more intelligence.

It is said that we cannot have manual training in the high school until we can offer equal advantages to boys and girls. If it were the rule that nobody is to be comfortable until everybody can be comfortable, nobody would ever be comfortable. The Manual Training School will eventually be as serviceable for girls as it is for boys. I think it will be thus serviceable for girls the very moment manual training is put into the high school. Women, wisely, do not always choose to stay within the limits men make for them. Being themselves chiefly interested, they prefer to try things for themselves. In Paris many women are now studying architecture. Many girls will be glad to avail themselves of all the instruction in drawing in the Manual Training School, and, for their benefit, the course in drawing may be extended. Many girls will undertake the course in woodwork, as it is now, and for their benefit wood-carving may be immediately introduced. Nor must we forget that the average woman marries a man. Women have every reason to wish that the average man may become more efficient. The women who do not marry, and who have their own way to make in the world, have every reason to wish that the boys growing up may qualify themselves for more virile employments than those of dry-goods clerks, notaries public, bookkeepers, and the like, which should long ago have been in the hands of women. Men and women are equally interested in putting manual training into the high school.

Macaulay says, "that if there had been any considerable pecuniary interest opposed to the acceptance of the law of gravitation it would not have been accepted for a century after its discovery." Fortunately for manual training, the pecuniary interest of teachers will be improved by its introduction. The money needed to put manual training into the high school will be forthcoming with less trouble than it has ever before taken to get money for education. The difficulties experienced from want of training by every successful business man are ready-made arguments in behalf of any appropriation needed to put manual training into the high school. Putting manual training into the high school will make an immediate demand for more teachers. The upper grammar grades will fill up with a view to the high school. The high schools will multiply. Immediately in the wake of the Manual Training Schools will follow special schools for the different industries. In the conduct of these special schools teachers who qualify themselves will gather some of the fruits of the closer alliance between education and industry. In these special schools the rewards of teachers will approximate the higher rewards of industry.

V.

Can we afford to have such education for all at public expense? Training the young is the best investment that can be made. Bring up a boy in Ireland and he will grow up to dig and shovel at a dollar a day. His son, born in St. Louis, takes in the spelling-book and some mechanical skill, and earns two dollars a day. The shoveller's grandson may go to the St. Louis Manual Training School, and thereafter earn from three to five dollars and upwards, indefinitely, according to his capacity. The raw material capable of the greatest possible improvement is human raw material. The raw material that yields the greatest possible profit in being improved is human raw material. European nations spend millions in training their young men for war. We could well afford to spend equal millions in training our young men for peace. Rather than to do without the intelligence and efficiency which Manual Training Schools would bring us, we could well afford, not only to establish the schools at public expense, but we could afford also to pay to every scholar in them a salary to support him as we do to every cadet at West Point. Put manual training into the high school. Take the sixty-five million dollars annual revenue from whiskey and tobacco, and distribute it amongst the scholars of the high schools thus made into Manual Training Schools: \$50 to each pupil during the first year, \$100 the second year, \$150 the third year, \$200 the fourth year. Keep this up and pupils will crowd all the schools in order to get to the high schools; the high school will be as full as is West Point. The majority of scholars will come from the very families whose children now get the least schooling, and the problem of the maintenance of Republican institutions will be forever solved.

This is a government by schoolmasters. If we had fewer schoolmasters, we should be forced to have more policemen and more soldiers. Our school system is the National Insurance Company, which insures us against lawlessness and anarchy. The school tax is the annual insurance premium. To add the whiskey tax to the school tax is at the same time to strengthen the insurance company and to lessen the danger against which it insures. It is to make assurance doubly sure that our internal peace and security shall never fail.

There have been already a hundred attempts to abolish the whiskey tax, and unless seized upon for education it is liable at any moment to be repealed. Its repeal would be a calamity. The tax bears heavily only upon vice and crime. No useful industry is hampered by it. There is not one single good reason why it should be repealed.

If we fail now to enact this measure the whiskey tax will soon be repealed, because at the rate at which we are going the national debt will all be paid off within the next fifteen years. The whiskey interest can

afford to pay millions to have the tax repealed. Once repealed the whiskey interest could and would spend millions every year to keep the tax from being re-imposed. When the whiskey tax shall be once repealed, fifty years of agitation would not accomplish for the welfare of the people what it now lies within our power to accomplish immediately. For us, in this matter, it is now or never.

Inequality has always been the bane of republics. Inequality is the offspring of injustice. Inequality breeds discord and war. Had there been no inequality in our land, we should have had no civil war. The peace and safety of this Republic lie in equal citizenship. A government of all, by all, for all gives a fair field to all, gets the benefit of the brains of all and satisfies all. Government by all the people is founded upon common sense. Equality is the essence of common sense. Equality is the child of Justice. The children of Equality are Concord and Peace. The American idea is not to level men down to equality. The American idea is to raise men up to equality by means of intelligence. Unless supplemented by high education for all the people, the declaration that all men are created equal is mere glittering generality. The proposed measure would raise up the least favored American child from ignorance and inequality to intelligence and equality. It would be the greatest step forward that has ever been taken towards giving all men a fair and equal start in the world. It would be the greatest step forward that has ever been taken towards a fair field for all and favor to none. It would be the greatest step forward that has ever been taken towards practical human equality. The proposed measure is the necessary and logical sequence of the immortal declaration of our revolutionary forefathers.

It will be said that such application of public money is contrary to usage. Since when have we in this country begun to object to things because they are new? Everything American is new. To govern by keeping men down is old. To govern by raising men up is new. Here, where everything is new, newness is not fatal. The only question that is to the point in this matter is: "Is the proposition based upon common sense?" This is the one blessed land under the sun in which one man with common sense on his side is an eventual majority.

Instead of going for a mere pittance into the coal mine, the mill or the factory, to be dwarfed physically, mentally, and morally by long hours, over-work, and evil associations, the children of the very poor for like wages wherewith to buy bread, would gladly crowd into the schools. Getting them into the schools and keeping them there throughout the public course, would bring to the front trained all the brains and ability born in the community. It would bring capacity to the front from the Five Points as well as from Murray Hill. It would light up with bright hopes and aspirations for the children of the poorest hovel. More than ever

before it would make of this land for struggling humanity an earthly paradise.

The great poet of our race says to this nation : " Art thou affeard to be the same in thine own act and valor as thou art in desire?"

From Jamestown and Plymouth Rock down to the present moment the loftiest American thought is that in this country there shall be at the earliest possible moment, free of charge for every child on the soil, the highest and best and most practical training the child can take and the world can give. The dream of commerce and industry is a land full of good customers. The dream of patriotism is a land full of free, intelligent, and independent citizens. The dream of poesy is a land full of smiling, loving, happy homes. The dream of commerce and industry, the dream of patriotism and the dream of poesy are all the same dream.

TECHNICAL AND ART EDUCATION IN PUBLIC SCHOOLS, AS ELEMENTS OF CULTURE.

BY PROF. FELIX ADLER.

It should be clearly understood at the outset of this paper, that the method of instruction which it is my purpose to advocate is not any scheme of "industrial education," in the sense in which that phrase is commonly employed. There is, in certain quarters, a great outcry against our public schools, because they do not turn out skilful wage-earners. The demand is made that the system of instruction shall be of a more "practical" character, that it shall furnish a more purely material equipment for the exigencies of life, than is the case at present. To remedy this deficiency, various kinds of technical work have been from time to time introduced into schools, in different parts of the country. Carpentry, printing, shoemaking, and art metal-work, have been interjected into the school curriculum, in order to supply the want which is felt to exist, and place the school abreast of modern requirements. This has not been done, however, without determined opposition,—an opposition, let me hasten to say, with which I fully sympathize. I believe that the State violates the rights of children, when it undertakes to prescribe their future career during the school age. The business of the public school is not to educate operatives, any more than it is to educate merchants, or clergymen, or physicians. The schools are designed to supply those elements of general culture, which are necessary to all men and women alike. Unless, therefore, it can be demonstrated that technical work and art-work *are* elements of that broad culture which all human beings ought to possess, these novelties should by no means be admitted into the curriculum. It is the purpose of this paper to advance the claim that tool-instruction, work-shop lessons,—in a word, technical training and artistic modelling, are essential elements of general culture. Leave the direct material applications entirely out of account, suppose there were no factories in the world; suppose that all the millions of children educated in our public schools were to be gentlemen and ladies at leisure, I should, in that case, plead none the less strenuously for the introduction of technical and art-work as an indispensable feature of

the school system. I should plead for it then, as now, simply because of its broadening, humanizing effect; because it quickens into activity certain faculties of human nature which too commonly lie dormant; because, instead of the present one-sided development, it is a step further in the direction of that all-sided development which is the ideal of education. The cry of "industrial education," in the ordinary acceptation of the term, is a false cry. It gives rise to the suspicion that the school is to be debased into a mere training-place for the material interests of life. At the very antipodes of such a system, stands the reform that I would urge. I wish to insist strongly upon this radical distinction, and to set sharply and clearly before the minds of all, the fundamental proposition that though the busy hum of every workshop should be hushed into silence, though the earth nourished her children without requiring their labor; still, technical and art instruction would be as vitally important as ever, simply as elements of mind culture.

The question, then, to be answered is, what, precisely, is the educational value of a school workshop, what are the mental equivalents of technical instruction? I shall not, of course, undertake to answer this question in terms of a general proposition, but shall content myself with describing the manner in which this problem was attacked in the Working-man's School in New York, and the methods which are there in use. In the first place, there is obtained a clear perception and firm grasp of geometrical forms and relations. The pupils work out the geometrical magnitudes in various kinds of material, and thereby gain a concrete realization of them. Formerly, in the geometry lesson, the teacher relied only on blackboard demonstration. Then, in the system of object teaching, the forms themselves were presented to the eye, and the children were taught to observe them closely, and become familiar with their properties and relations. In the workshop, a further advance is taken. The pupils themselves construct the geometrical forms, and, in thus slowly and carefully producing them, become better acquainted with their properties than would otherwise be possible. They also demonstrate the simpler propositions of geometry, by actual measurements. For instance, the proposition that the square described on the hypotenuse of a right triangle is equal to the sum of the squares on the other two sides, is demonstrated in the following manner:

The pupils first draw a right triangle of specified dimensions, and squares on each of the three sides. The squares thus drawn are then divided into units of area, and the pupils will find, on counting, that the number of unit squares in the square formed on the hypotenuse, is equal to the sum of the number in the squares formed on the other two sides. Then, in the workshop, the figure of the triangle with its adjacent squares divided as before, is sawed out of thin wood. The smaller squares are

then sawed into their units, along the lines of division, and by afterwards applying these to the square of the hypotenuse, the perfect coincidence of area is shown. In like manner, the equality of area between a parallelogram and a rectangle of equal base and height, is demonstrated by first drawing and then constructing both figures. It will then be found that if a right triangle is sawed from one end of the parallelogram and applied at the other, the resulting figure will be identical in area with the rectangle. In short, the rules of mensuration, instead of being dogmatic statements, to be arbitrarily memorized, and usually soon forgotten, become facts of experience, which stamp themselves firmly upon the minds, even of quite young children.

Another most important mental equivalent of technical instruction is the power thereby acquired of understanding a drawing,—that is, of realizing the concrete form when one sees the drawing. This may be called the training of the mechanical imagination. Modern scientists have used the expression “the scientific imagination,”—in like manner. I may be permitted to speak of the mechanical imagination. It is a notorious fact that many workmen are deficient in this respect. They cannot work from a drawing;—in other words, they cannot realize an object when a drawing of it is presented to them, but must have a model from which to work. This power of mechanical imagination, however, is a mental faculty which not workmen only, but every one, ought to cultivate. Those who are deficient in that regard, are lacking in an important element of mental ability. Under the new system, as practised in our Workingman’s School, we seek to provide the necessary training for this end, by making our pupils always work from their own drawings. Whatever is made in the workshop is first drawn by them, and whatever is drawn is afterwards wrought out in material. By this means, the object and its graphical representation are intimately associated in the pupil’s mind, and the realization of the former upon inspection of the latter, becomes a simple and easy matter.

There are other mental equivalents of a course of technical instruction, no less wide-reaching than those I have named. In the higher classes, the pupils construct their own philosophical apparatus, and realize the elementary laws of physics and mechanics by actual experiment. The construction of apparatus is by no means an unimportant factor in awakening an interest in those laws of nature which the instruments themselves are intended to demonstrate. But without the tool instruction which they have received in the previous part of the school course, the pupils would not be able to make the necessary apparatus for this purpose. If they are to be natural scientists hereafter, this training in the use of tools will make them more independent in their experiments, but, in any case, they will gain a thorough knowledge of fundamental scientific facts

and principles,—a knowledge in which most of the graduates of our public schools are sadly deficient.

Lastly, the pupils acquire an insight into machinery, which forms so prominent a feature of modern civilization, by constructing and putting together the parts of a simple engine, which is afterwards set in motion.

The chief advantages, then, that I have thus far considered, which are to be expected from a course of technical instruction, are, the help derived in the workshop for the teaching of mathematical and natural science, and the cultivation of the mechanical imagination as a part and province of the imagination generally. But these are only one set of advantages resulting from such a course. We may also regard workshop instruction as a part of gymnastic training in general. In the gymnasium the muscles of the hands, arms, and legs are developed.—the workshop develops the co-ordinating power of the hand and eye. The hand and the eye are the two organs which stand in the nearest relation to the mind. They are its immediate servitors. Why, then, should we deny to these that training which we concede to be so necessary in the case of others?

Apart from all practical uses, simply on grounds of culture, we may ask,—Is a man a complete human being if these two important organs are not highly disciplined? Our system of workshop instruction is designed to be an A, B, C of skill. We aim to introduce such a variety of tools and manipulations, that not any one variety of skill, but skill generally, shall be cultivated. And here again, though the future workman will derive the greatest advantage from this early training, not he alone, nor even he, pre-eminently, will derive such advantage. The deft hand the quick, sure eye, will be of infinite value to the scientist, as already observed, in his experiments, to the engineer, the surgeon, the dentist, and even to those who do not engage in pursuits in which the hand is of fine importance. The lawyer, the clergyman, the scholar will, I claim, be more human if this particular side of their nature, the active side, is thoroughly trained and disciplined.

I have spoken thus far of tool-instruction,—in the same manner I wish now to speak of art-work. As in the one case our aim is not to educate artisans, so in the other, it is not our purpose to develop artists. What we wish to bring to the surface in our pupils is the æsthetic faculty. If artists result, so much the better; but the object we have in view is simply to enable our pupils to appreciate the beautiful. The principle underlying our method is, that in order to appreciate the beautiful, our pupils shall make what is beautiful. This is, in fact, the cardinal idea which runs through our entire system of education by work,—to learn by actually producing, to teach by causing the pupils to produce. Children should be trained to detect beauty when they see it, and they will never be sure that they see correctly until they attempt to translate their impressions into actual forms.

The chief means which we employ for the cultivation of the æsthetic faculty are, free-hand drawing from the object, and, in close connection with that, modelling in clay. In the higher classes, instruction in designing will be added. Little children of eight years in our school-atelier are now learning to model leaves of various shapes, architectural ornaments, the features of the human face, and heads of animals; and it is wonderful to see with what delight they enter upon their work; how like a flood the instinct of creation, which is usually repressed and pent up in children, rushes forth as soon as an opportunity is given it to vent itself. The writer can testify that children of the poorest class have displayed a liking and an aptitude for artistic production that seemed, in the judgment of artists who saw their work, truly remarkable.

Let us consider what a promise is contained in this beginning; and what a benefit it would be if pupils in all schools could receive a similar education! How would art flourish anew, if the slumbering art-instincts of the masses of the people were awakened, and a public sentiment were favorable to, and appreciative of the highest efforts of true art! For it is idle to expect that great artists will be formed in this country, or in any country, by schools and advantages for the few. The solitary artist must perish or deteriorate for lack of the congenial atmosphere in which alone he can live. The great artist is the rich, ripe fruit of a whole people's art life; he is the high-crested wave that rises out of a whole sea of similar tendency and endowment.

But it is not alone in intellectual and æsthetic culture that the value of technical and art-instruction will be found to consist. Those who desire an all-sided culture will demand of the new method that it shall demonstrate its power for the development of the moral nature as well. In this, the highest sphere of education, I trust that the merit of the reform I urge will be most conspicuously shown. The moral equivalents of work-instruction are not less perceptible than the mental equivalents,—its influence upon the formation of character is nothing short of revolutionary. It will help to overthrow many of the impure conceptions of morality that prevail at the present day. The mass of mankind have not yet learned the imminent quality of virtue, and seek in extraneous motives the sanctions of moral conduct. The very question they ask,—What is the use of performing a virtuous act?—shows how unsound and unmoral are their conceptions of virtue. And the answer commonly given,—For the sake of some reward or punishment,—tends to confirm the same conclusion. What men need to learn is the intrinsic value of virtue; what they need to revere is the authority and majesty of laws inherent in the soul.

The occupations of the workshop and the atelier combined, are admirably adapted to lay the foundation of this truer moral estimate of life. For days, and perhaps for weeks, the pupil labors to convert a formless

material into a form illustrating mathematical truth or æsthetic harmony. He undergoes protracted toil, and meets, perhaps, with many failures and disappointments, to be rewarded at last—by what? Simply by realizing, in some degree, that perfectness of the object which he aimed at from the beginning. The work is merely a typical form, destitute of any pecuniary value. Its worth consists solely in its truth or beauty. A habit is thus formed of judging in accordance with intrinsic, rather than with superficial qualities.

Gradually, almost insensibly, the analogy of the work performed on outward objects will be applied to inward experience. A delicate sensibility to true and harmonious relations will be engendered, and the impressions thus imparted may afterwards be strengthened into convictions by direct moral instruction. The pupil, when of sufficient age, can be taught that in the world of thought and feeling, no less than in that of matter, truth and harmony of relation are the sole ends to be sought. He can be exhorted to undergo similar toil, to be prepared for similar failures and disappointments, in order to realize, at last, something of the same inward perfection which is to be his only and all-sufficient reward. Thus, while he is shaping the typical objects which the instructor proposes to him as a task, while he pores silently, persistently, and lovingly, over his toil, reaching success by dint of gradual approximation, he is, at the same time, shaping his own character, and a tendency of mind is created from which will eventually result the loftiest and purest morality.*

There are other moral effects to be observed which are no less noteworthy. The pupils grow to love their work, and thus acquire, early in life, that bent toward thoroughness and application which is the surest safeguard against habits of carelessness and insincerity, in later years. The co-operation between pupils which is necessary in many of the workshop tasks, tends to foster and develop, as nothing else can, that spirit of solidarity without which all culture is narrow and selfish. By selecting the ablest pupil as the foreman of the rest, respect for superior ability is inculcated under conditions in which its justice is apparent to all. Finally, the workshop is often the means of saving the self-respect of those pupils who are backward in other studies, and who yet may excel in practical work, as has been proved in more than one instance in our school.

I remember especially the case of one boy, who seemed utterly unable to master the simplest reading-lesson, and who was, in this respect, far below pupils much younger than himself. In the ordinary school, such a pupil might have been set down as a dunce. His teachers might have given him up as well nigh hopeless, and gradually he would have been led to despair of himself. But this child happened to be quite surprisingly gifted in everything that involved mechanical skill. He surpassed his fellow-pupils in the workshop as much as he lagged behind them in the class-room,

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and this excellence in one particular became the lever for raising his standing and intensifying his exertions in all particulars.

A MORE DETAILED STATEMENT OF THE SCHEME OF TECHNICAL INSTRUCTION.

The Workingman's School, in New York, is an institution in which the principles I have enunciated are made the basis of a complete system of school instruction. The period covered by the school course reaches from the sixth to the fourteenth year—the ordinary public school age. At the outset, the main practical difficulty in carrying out our plan was found to consist in formulating a series of workshop lessons whose value should be educational. There are thousands of manual occupations from which a selection must be made, in order to secure a system which shall present a sequence and a graded series in the materials used, in the tools employed, in the mental equivalents resulting. Under the plan of so-called “industrial education,” no such principle of selection has been taken as a guide. Now carpentry, now the printing-press, and again basket-making or some other occupation, has been introduced into schools in a random manner, and without any far-seeing purpose. What is needed is a principle of selection which shall organically connect the work-instruction with the remaining branches. Such a principle has been found in the drawing course in both its departments; mechanical drawing to be the basis of instruction in the workshop, and free-hand drawing the basis of work in the atelier.

In the department of art instruction the realization of this idea seems comparatively easy; in the department of technical instruction the difficulty is much greater. An attempt to solve it has, however, been made, and the following outline will afford a survey of the scheme of workshop lessons projected and partly carried out in the school. The details of the plan may be modified as occasion shall require, but this *resumé* will show at least the lines along which we have been advancing toward our goal.

The plan consists of a series of exercises so arranged that the different tools and materials of construction employed are successively introduced according to the ages and abilities of the pupils, so that the actual practice necessary for the skilful manipulation of the tools may be given simultaneously with an education of the mind. The materials used are arranged in such order that children from six to eight work in clay; those from eight to nine, in pasteboard; from nine to ten, tablets of wood; from ten to eleven, blocks of wood; from eleven to twelve, green sand, with which they construct moulds. For the highest class, metal is employed. The tools are similarly graded, in order to suit the material upon which they are to be used.

The exercises for the two lowest classes (the eighth and seventh), introduce the use of paper, pencils, triangles, compasses, and rulers, in the

drawing-room. In the work-room small toy squares and chisels are employed for carving geometrical forms from pieces of clay. Only plane figures are involved in the exercise for these classes, from which the pupil will acquire a knowledge of the names and properties of lines, angles, polygons, circles, parts of the circle, and also of the methods of construction of many geometrical forms. In order that the exercises may have greater interest to the pupil than could be elicited from the study of abstract geometrical figures, he will first be shown a model of some familiar object composed of pieces representing different geometrical forms. For example, a model of a house will be taken at first, and then the different geometrical figures, as the square, the rectangle, and the triangle, which enter into the structure of the model, will be taken as the subjects of different exercises.

The exercises for the sixth class introduced the use of the drawing-board and T-square. In the work-instruction course the knife is employed in cutting the developments of geometrical solids from pasteboard. By means of the exercises arranged for this class, the pupil will be given a conception of the relation between the development and the finished solid, and will also acquire a more thorough knowledge of the properties of the plane figures which have been subjects of exercises during the two preceding years.

The exercises for the fifth class introduced the use of the hand-bracket or scroll-saw, in the workshop. Methods will also be given for calculating the area of different plane figures, and for the construction of ovals and ellipses.

For the fourth class, the drawing-course advances to the drawing of solids, and in the workshop there is a series of parallel exercises in which the hand-saw is introduced, and practice given in wood-turning. The aim of the exercises prepared for this class is to teach the methods of draughting solid bodies, and methods for calculating the volumes of many of the solids which are subjects of the exercises.

The third class proceed to the drawing of objects composed of several parts. In the workshop, a carpentry course is taken up, in which a large part of the apparatus used for the experiments in mechanics and physics will be constructed. By the construction of different types of joints used in framing, and applying them in the simple form of bridge or roof trusses, the pupil will be taught the form that should be given to joints, to illustrate special varieties of strain.

The exercises for the second class introduce drawing, from "free-hand" sketches, parts of the machinery used in the shop. In the workshop, a series of exercises will be given in moulding, in which a general knowledge of the principles of moulding will be taught. The moulds will be set up as they would be in any iron-foundry, but, as a substitute for

molten iron, liquid plaster of Paris will be poured in casting. Many of the patterns used in making the moulds will be the results of preceding exercises.

The first class will continue drawing parts and combinations of parts of machinery used in the shop. In the workshop, practice will be given in the chipping and filing of metals and the hand-turning of brass. Many of the exercises in drawing will be the representation of parts of the steam-engine; and, as a culminating exercise in the shop, the pupil will construct a small and simple form of steam-engine. In connection with this last exercise, the pupil will become familiar with the operations and functions of the parts of an engine.

The exercises intended to illustrate many elementary principles and laws of mechanics and physics have been chosen so that the pupil, with the knowledge of the use of tools acquired in the workshop, will be able to construct most of the apparatus necessary for the experiments, as well as to afford him the opportunity of taking part in their performance.

In mechanics, experiments will be made illustrating the action of force, inertia, gravity, laws of the pendulum, laws of falling bodies, moments, centrifugal force, etc.

In physics, a number of exercises have been planned to illustrate the most important facts with regard to hydrostatics, hydraulics, pneumatics, sound, light, heat, and electricity.

The pupils will make working drawings of each piece of scientific apparatus before the actual construction is commenced in the workshop, and in many cases they will make their own designs of the proposed instruments, instead of making the drawings from a model.

It will be observed that in this course, there is a continuous and orderly sequence in the mental equivalents aimed at, from first to last. The pupil first gains an acquaintance with the properties of triangles, circles, polygons, and other plane figures of geometry. Next, he becomes familiar with the development of solids. Then, he learns to calculate the areas of surfaces and the volume of solids. By the making of simple trusses, the elementary principles of strain and resistance are brought to his notice. Finally, in the construction of the steam-engine and of simple philosophical apparatus, he acquires a knowledge of certain fundamental laws of physics and mechanics. During the entire process not a single arbitrary step has been taken. The pupil is prepared to give a reason for every detail of his work. The knowledge which he gains has not been merely imparted to him by another,—it has grown out of his own observation and experience. He becomes, in fact, an investigator of nature, and the pathway of knowledge, no longer dark and toilsome, is brightened by the keen joy of discovery.

The whole scheme of instruction is an application of the same idea out of which Froebel's Kindergarten has grown. The system just described is, however, very far from being a kindergarten, though it has sometimes erroneously been so called. It is a school in the strictest sense of the term, but a school based upon the same idea that led Froebel to invent his kindergarten games and occupations,—the idea, namely, that in producing an object, the pupil comes into the most direct relation with its properties and idiosyncrasies, and understands it much better than he could otherwise possibly do. The system of Pestalozzi was an enormous advance upon the methods of instruction which had previously been pursued. He called on men to abandon their idle dealing with the names of things, and rather to get knowledge by observing the things themselves. To the impulse of Pestalozzi we owe the system of object-teaching which has become familiar in this country. But it is necessary now to take a step beyond Pestalozzi. It is not sufficient that the pupil handle the object and observe it,—he must create it, in order fully to appreciate it mentally.

By slowly and carefully working over an object, the learner becomes thoroughly familiar with its peculiar properties. Unless these are duly respected, the attempt to produce the object will fail. The pupil is thus led by his own ill success to see wherein he has erred, and to discover the true nature of the object he is dealing with, in the endeavor to reproduce it. Knowledge thus acquired is henceforth forever inseparable from the mental equipment. It becomes a part of himself, and the concrete object is but the outward projection of principles and laws which the mind has grasped and assimilated into its own constitution. Creation is the highest function of which the human intellect can conceive. The divinity in all nations has been worshipped as the Creator. Man is most godlike when he creates. The creative method is the name which we will apply to our reformed system of education,—a system, the aim of which is to develop this most sublime faculty, and make it the means of educating all the rest.

But I seem to hear objections raised against the practicability of introducing technical and art work into our public schools, upon such a system as I have outlined. Let me, in concluding this paper, devote a few words to showing how ill-founded these objections are, and how easily they may be removed. Is it said that the teachers at present in those schools are not fitted to give such instruction? Then let young graduates from technological and art schools be employed. One such teacher in each department may be sufficient for an entire school. Is it urged that the expense would be too great? To this it may be replied that the materials used, wood, clay, pasteboard, etc., are extremely cheap, and that the cost is, in fact, insignificant when compared with the incalculable benefit to be gained. Is time lacking for this purpose? Then let us utilize the Saturday. Let there be *Saturday schools* of technical and art work. It should

not be said that the children need Saturday for rest. Such work as this will be a recreation for them, and vastly better than to pass the day in idleness. I do not say that the Saturday is sufficient for the purpose in a model school after the new method, but it is sufficient for a beginning. It is sufficient until, by the results shown, the new system will so gain public approbation that additional means and time will be provided. In fact, I can see no valid objection to the reform for which I am pleading. I can look upon the obstacles which have been urged, only as cloud-rocks, which will melt into thin air and vanish under the bright sunlight of an earnest purpose.

The whole country is waking up to the necessity of a change in the methods of public school instruction. Let not the teachers lag behind, but rather let them be the leaders in this movement for reform. The teacher's profession is a golden one—not, indeed, in respect to material returns, but in respect to the opportunities which it affords. The teacher has golden opportunities. Teachers are the artists who fashion the generation that is yet to come. Upon them more than upon any other class depends the future of the Republic. Let them strike out boldly for the highest aims of human culture, and the people generally will more and more rise to the level of appreciating and supporting their noblest endeavors.

HANDWORK IN THE SCHOOL.

BY JOHN M. ORDWAY.

There is much talk about Industrial Education and Industrial Schools, without any previous limitation of the meaning of the terms. In the minds of some, these expressions are associated with something like the Manual Labor Schools of a past generation, which were designed to afford the student a chance to pursue a course of studies beyond those of the common school, and pay his way by devoting a portion of the time to productive bodily labor. The tidal wave of such schools swept over our country years ago, and exhausted itself, leaving hardly a trace behind. Experience has shown that only under quite exceptional circumstance can the student make rapid progress in intellectual pursuits while harassed by the drudgery of money-making toil.

Again, there are charitable undertakings in which destitute and forsaken children, children taken from no homes, and from homes of wretchedness and vice, are taught to help themselves by turning to profitable account their neglected physical powers, so that they may become capable and self-respecting, and ambitious of a higher life. Here training to work, to habits of industry and order, is the chief aim. This kind of industrial education needs no labored defence, for all will freely admit that it ought never to become obsolete as long as there is sin and misery in the world. Let such schools be multiplied a thousand-fold, and their noble supporters will be rewarded by having multitudes of the redeemed ones rise up to call them blessed.

And it behoves the State to give similar instruction to the inmates of institutions of restraint; for the vicious and criminal ones should not be restored to society again, till they are brought to a love of honest work and the capability of earning an honest living.

But the numberless industries of the world are to be recruited, year by year, almost wholly from those who are not degraded and have not transgressed the laws; and "industrial education" ought to have reference mainly to the vast majority of the young who are coming forward to lives of labor. Among the great questions which have been and are agitating

the world, and shall agitate it still more, are these:—How far shall the education of youth, in their school years, have direct and special reference to their future occupations? Shall special instruction be given at the public expense or at private cost? Shall schools be multiplied to fit for every industry, or can there be found some common curriculum to suit the wants of all? Shall we regard the head only, or the hands only; or shall we take into account, at the same time, the brain and its servants, the hand and the eye?

Among educators the contest respecting realistic and humanistic studies has been going on for more than one century, and the present war of Hellenists and anti-Hellenists reminds us that the fierceness of the contestants is unabated. But, as yet, neither side has shown, by its arguments or by its fruits, that it has comprehended the whole truth. The "Real" schools of Germany, which were started more than a hundred years ago, were a protest in favor of the growing importance of the study of the physical sciences as affording ideas likely to be of service in matters of every-day life.

In time, there came the *Gewerbeschule*,—trade schools,—which recognized the close connection of the sciences, and of art with the arts. But, with new subjects of study, they still adhere to old methods and give mere theoretical instruction. They do, indeed, make some account of drawing and modelling, and these afford a light kind of manual practice, but it is of a peculiar and limited character. It is true, that designs are needed to work from in building, and in textile manufactures, in the plastic arts and in machine construction, and instruction in drawing is very useful and important as an auxiliary to the main work of the technic school. But it seems to be a confusion of language to speak, as some do, of industrial education as referring to the schools in which art, and not the arts, is exalted to the chief place. Some even speak of the so-called commercial colleges as industrial. Money is useful, and even necessary in the industries, and trade gives them life. In fact, the prime mover of all our manufactures is not steam-engines and water-wheels, but the almighty dollar. And yet, we do not reckon banking among the industrial arts, nor is the merchant considered a producer. So instruction in drawing and designing is not industrial education, but, like the study of geometry, it is only a subordinate part, an adjunct.

The learned world has been very slow in coming round to nature's methods. They have overlooked the simple fact that the child learns to talk,—not from lectures on the structure of the larynx and the conformations of the palate and tongue,—not from discourses on subject and predicate and copula, but by talking; by unconsciously using the vocal chords and articulating words in the same syntactical order as his elders. The boy learns to swim, not by a drill of questions and answers respecting specific

gravity and greatest resistance, and flexor and extensor muscles; but by trusting himself to the water and striking out feet and hands.

What sort of an educational system must that be which tries to make swimmers or rowers without water?

The Gewerbeschule and the Kreisgewerbeschule, art trade schools, and the polytechnic schools and the technological schools have been long in operation, but too often their graduates show a lack of something in their training. The young men do not know how to apply the results of their cramming. It is because these schools touch the industries only at arm's length, and with gloves on. Handling the pencil is respectable, but handling the hammer and chisel is work requiring strength, and therefore, forsooth, is degrading. Baseless dignity is retained, but efficiency is left unearned.

Europe has, indeed, many an actual trade school for teaching a single art,—schools of watch-making, of weaving, of pottery, of basket-making, of violin-making, of horse-shoeing, of dress-making, of lace-making; and, in the decadence of the apprenticeship system, such schools help to supply an urgent need. They are of use to those whose life work is determined on. We have none in this country and it is uncertain whether they would flourish among us. They are too narrow, too special, and there may be something better. We need the union and the contemporaneous interaction of the theoretical and the practical, of the technological and the technical; and since the present century began its second half, there has been evolved a joining together of what ought never to have been kept apart.

The world has now some schools in which the head and the hands co-operate. Such are the Imperial Technic School of Moscow, its offspring the Fachschule in Bohemia, the apprenticeship schools of France, and in our own country the school of Mechanic Arts in Boston, and the Manual Training Schools of St. Louis and Chicago, as well as departments in Purdue and Illinois (Industrial) Universities.

The Russian, Bohemian, and American schools owe their fundamental idea to Victor della Voss, of Moscow, whose exhibit at the Philadelphia Exposition of 1876, incited Prof. J. D. Runkle to introduce into the Massachusetts Institute of Technology that instruction in Mechanic Arts which the grant of Congress called for, but which had not been realized. Starting under difficulties and discouragements and burdened with the need of charging a high rate of tuition, this Boston school has gone on improving its methods and increasing in usefulness and prosperity till it has fully justified the wisdom of its establishment. The generous and fruitful emulation of St. Louis and Chicago, and the lively interest which is spreading in other places, go to prove that such schools are a real need of the

times. Lest any one should fail to comprehend the animating spirit of the Mechanic Arts and Manual Training Schools, allow me to emphasize the fact that the object in view is the instruction of the pupils, and not the construction of articles of market value. It is to teach the use of tools and the laying out of work, and not the manufacture of a very narrow range of the thousand things that tools will make.

A school that aims at turning out well-finished products steps out of its proper province. The student should be made to understand that he is learning principles and laying the foundations of accuracy, but that only long and special practice can produce that excellence and nicety of manipulation which should characterize objects made to sell. School life is too short to elaborate the finished workman, but it can rough hew the apprentice, so as to make him worth something at the very outset of his actual life work. When he has been rendered capable of doing honestly salable work let him, and not the school, get the benefit of it; let him go to the school of life. But the school workshop is not necessarily for those only who are to live by the work of their own hands. Such training emphasizes, at every point, the need of accuracy, and is well calculated to ingrain in one's very nature the love of squareness in dealing with things and men. And then, again, every one has more or less occasion to judge the work of others; and how much better will he be fitted to decide, when he knows by his own experience just how the work is done?

There are some who would object to the variety of shop-work in the course, for in their view the future worker in wood has no need of learning to file and forge and turn iron. But very few, indeed, of those who have gone through the course themselves, think that anything is lost by this liberal training of the hands. Hardly any one at the beginning of the school training has any well-grounded preference for a particular branch of work. It is best to test his fitness by actual trial of various kinds. Nor, in after years, can one always find a chance to engage in that branch which would suit his inclinations best. Nothing is lost by preparatory practice in more than one art, for the same conforming to exact measures, the same accuracy of eye, and, to a certain extent, the same training of the muscles to handle tools, is of use in all the trades.

The multiplication of machinery and the organization of great factories has brought about such a subdivision of labor that many a workman has to spend his days in an endless repetition of only one or two operations. But would he, therefore, be any the better for having none of the unused powers cultivated? The more limited the occupation is, the greater is the need of a wider training in early years to counteract the depressing influence of a treadmill life. Brain tells, even in little things. The weaver only moves the shipper to start the loom, and shifts the bobbins, and ties the broken threads; but how does it happen that, working just as many

hours, one weaver earns four dollars a week and another ten? We have got too far beyond the dark ages to be told that one needs to learn only the narrow routine of his daily labor.

The Manual Training Schools are not perfect, but whoever studies without prejudice their plan and working will be convinced that their scope should be widened rather than narrowed. Such industrial education should be spread throughout the length and breadth of our land; for the youth of the country need to be made to feel that there are other roads to usefulness and honor and satisfying employment, than those which lie through the learned professions and commerce and political life.

But while well meaning educators have been giving attention to manual exercises as a means of better fitting the young for a future occupation of labor, the incidental advantages have proved well worthy of consideration; for they could not fail to notice that the mind, itself, receives very material assistance when the bodily powers are, at the same time, brought under systematic development. And so it happens that not a few who at first favored handwork in school, from the utilitarian point of view, have at length come to consider it as yet more advantageous for a symmetric development of the whole being, whether actual use is ever to be made of trade skill or the student is to live otherwise than by bodily labor. It is this phase of industrial education, in which handwork appears as the auxiliary of head work, and not as the leading feature,—it is this phase which most concerns us who are gathered here, whose life work is not to guide pupils in the narrow channels of special callings, but to make them intelligent and virtuous and useful citizens.

The ages in which the *trivium* and *quadrivium* made up the sum of liberal studies have passed away,—albeit, not a few relics of mediævalism are still retained. The physical sciences have made rapid progress in these latter days and they have so much to do with the intellectual and material progress of our race, that the schools have been forced to recognize them as worthy of being taught, not only for imparting positive knowledge, but for affording a kind of mental discipline which languages and dialectics fail to give.

In studying the sciences, facts must be gathered in and digested and assimilated, and all this cannot be done by the hearing of the ear, by the study of books, or attendance at lectures. It is getting to be better and better understood that the student must put himself in the attitude of an observer and investigator. He must see with his own eyes, and feel with his own hands. He must use his bodily senses as well as his intellectual faculties. And he must bring to his aid the various instruments which the rigorous demands of science have caused to be invented. And thus it comes that our higher institutions of learning must have their well equipped laboratories of chemistry and physics and biology and their collections of

illustrative specimens in mineralogy, and botany, and zoology, and even in technology. The student of medicine must himself dissect the human body and frequent the hospitals. The student of physiology must himself use the scalpel and microscope. The student of engineering must himself work with level and transit. The student of astronomy must learn with instruments what is meant by right ascension and declination. The student of mechanics must himself measure velocity and resistance, and test the strength of materials. Laboratory teaching and laboratory work is getting to be the prominent feature of schools of science, and a not altogether subordinate one in the colleges of liberal arts. And yet with the present subdivision of professional labor, the physician may never ply the knife among living muscles and arteries and nerves, and the chemist may never have occasion in after life to make an analysis. Then why require superfluous work of the young aspirant? Because ideas that come through the hand and the eye come to stay. Because touch and sight correct the crude perceptions of the mind. Because direct observation shows more in a moment than whole pages of words can set forth. And now as hand practice is proving so valuable in the higher schools, the question comes up whether in the elementary schools also the direct sources of knowledge shall not be trained, instead of exercising memory alone. The most marvellous instruments that ever were made are the eye and that culmination of contrivance, the human hand. Think of this much articulated member with its manifold executive powers. Think of those thousands of nerve loops in the finger tips, which bring the brain and mind into contact with the outer world. With the hand we become cognizant of the hard and soft, smooth and rough, sticky and slippery, even and uneven, sharp and dull, rigid and flexible, hollow and solid, thick and thin, wet and dry, warm and cold, heavy and light, strong and fragile. With this we take our food, with this we fashion our garments, with this we build our houses, with this we create forms of beauty, with this we transmit our thoughts. These are eyes to the blind and speech to the dumb. Shall the schoolmaster continue to exercise in writing only, this member on which the Creator has lavished so much skill? We have gymnastics, to be sure, to give strength and suppleness to the body, but, except in quickness of catch and firmness of grip, gymnastics leave the hand untrained.

One hundred and two years ago there came into the world one whom a good Providence led by strange, but not unmeaning ways, to become the prophet of a new dispensation for the earlier years of playful childhood. Much insight and study and sympathetic experiment evolved an unrepresive and tearless system of training of which Froebel found the key in the use of the hands and fingers, altogether and one by one. There are those who "fast twice a week" and "give tithes of all they possess," who look down on such exercises, as childish play. But Froebel was one of those who be-

lieve that "except ye be converted and become as little children, ye shall not enter into the kingdom of heaven." But the kindergarten age is soon over and still there is need of something for the hands to do. The use of chemical and physical apparatus does not come till the later years of school life, and the school days of the vast majority of pupils are over before laboratory work comes on.

In the years available for all, can there be found any instructive exercises, besides writing and drawing, to busy the hands which are otherwise so prone to mischief;—anything which shall call into play a variety of muscles and at the same time assist in the development of mind;—anything which shall serve in the reception and corporeal expression of ideas? In a country which is behind none in the world in respect to education, they have been working out one solution of this problem during the last fifteen years. Starting with distinct handwork schools maintained by sloyd unions and private benevolence, the Swedes have found that a union of sloyd school with the public school secures the advantages and supplies the deficiencies of both. Like all new ideas, the introduction of handwork into the common schools met with no little opposition, but, thanks to the efforts of liberal and sensible men, it has made rapid headway, it has received the sanction and aid of the State, and the system is now generally recognized as a great improvement on the old, one-sided one.

The union of sloyd school and folk school is no longer an experiment, it is no longer the desideratum of enthusiasts. It has become an established thing. Already there are over 500 such schools in Sweden alone. The system is spreading in Norway, and Germany also is beginning to take part in the movement. Where most progress has been made it is particularly noticeable that the active advocates and promoters of sloyd schools have come to consider handwork as even more valuable from the educational than from the economic point of view; and private schools which are attended by the children of the more favored classes of society have found it worth the while to make manual training a prominent feature. There is now abundant testimony that the use of the hands and tools in a systematic course of work requiring neatness, accuracy, and contrivance is an important factor in the harmonious development of all the powers. The interest excited in the work-room is carried into the school-room, and the gain in zeal and insight more than makes up for any apparent loss of time by a few hours of handwork. So it is stated as a matter of experience that the pupils make more rapid progress in their studies than they did before the enlivening shopwork exercises were added.

Let us consider whether this generalization of handwork in schools and its extension to pupils of all conditions in life is not worthy of adoption in our own country, whether it is not so suitable to human nature and

the needs of the present age that it ought to become universal. Pride ourselves as we may on our system of public schools, we must still admit that there is room for improvement. Nobody is quite satisfied, and some find one fault and some another. If we look merely to the utilitarian side of education, there is no deciding for all what the subjects of study should be or how far they should be pursued.

We cannot foresee the future of any one, and we cannot tell exactly what will be of direct use to him in years to come. The prime business of the educator is not to impart knowledge, but to lay a basis for self-improvement. You teach the child how to acquire and use knowledge, but the real acquisition and use come mainly in after life. You teach him to read, for there is much in books, but mere reading amounts to nothing. He must learn to understand, to sift, to arrange ideas. And then books do not contain all knowledge, and all books are not accessible to everybody. The child should learn to use the book of nature. He has eyes that oftentimes see not, and he must be taught to observe. But the miserly hoarding of facts does not tend to intellectual wealth. They must be co-ordinated, collated, and used. Do all we may in early years, when school life is over the education is but just begun.

The school should start the child aright, guide him in the right direction, and economize his strength. The aim should be not to turn out pedants or narrow specialists, either of high or low degree, but to develop all the powers systematically and make intelligent, capable, self-directing men and women. And whatever pursuits give the best mental and physical discipline, are most worthy of a place in the course of instruction. Order, exactness, neatness, love of beauty, and inventiveness are desirable in all. In reading, the pupil may think he does pretty well if he pronounces most of the words rightly. In writing, he is satisfied if the letters are not quite all of a height, and their forms are only a little remote from those of the copy set. But in making a dove-tailed wooden box, hasty measurements and rude approximations will not answer. Ill-matching joints bring on one the laugh of his fellows and his own self-condemnation. Exactness is seen clearly to be the artisan's first law. The boy may be tolerated in translating Greek or German into limping English; but when he tries to smooth a board with a notched plane he is forcibly reminded that the tool must be ground. The discipline of fitting things is far more effective than that of shaping letters or arranging words. The pupil's patience breaks down when he tries over and over again to do the elusive sum in arithmetic, but he is so delighted to use his hands, that he is not disheartened by repeating trials till the joint is neat and true.

Many a boy who falls behind in the 'class-room, because his memory is dull and his perception of abstract forms and numbers not the keenest, wakes up and becomes thoroughly alive when he holds the saw, the plane,

or the chisel. And this enlivening is likely to have a reflex influence, so that at length the book work becomes no longer formidable. On the other hand the quick child, by whom words are easily learned, needs to feel the connection between names and things. He needs to find out that learning consists not in a repetition of sounds. After some practice at the bench, the term "square" will mean something more than the empty synonym "right-angled" indicates; it will recall to his mind the idea of rigid exactness. It is well enough to hold fast "the form of sound words," but the form of true, well-made things leaves an indelible impress on the character. Mathematics have been justly deemed of great value for mental discipline, and surely the practical mathematics of the foot rule, the bevel, and the gauge constitute a discipline that the youthful lover of concrete things can appreciate and profit by.

Too often the youth on leaving school is but a helpless being who sees no relation between his books and the realities of life. He can write and calculate, but you must tell him just what to write and what figures to make. For a while he is more hindrance than help. But train his executive power by practical school work,—train his inventive and constructive faculties and he will be good for something, he will be ready to do with all his might whatsoever his hand findeth to do. Real life then becomes to him not an entirely new world but a continuation, an enlargement, a variation of school life.

The world needs in all departments of professional, industrial, commercial, and political life vastly more men who can plan and do. There are altogether too many of those who talk, but wait for others to act, who are ready to pick up the fruit when it falls, but have no idea of shaking the boughs. It has been my fortune to watch not a few young men who have come from schools in which memory is at a premium, to engage in courses in which laboratory or shop-work is interspersed with book study. It takes no long contact with actual things to eliminate their self-conceit, to remand the parrot and the monkey to the background, and to begin to develop the man that is in them. And when at length they go out into the world, their employers are surprised to see these book-using fellows take hold so readily of the work before them, and so soon outstrip the merely practical men. On the other hand youths who have never soiled their hands during their course of study, too often prove failures for a time,—not for want of natural ability and abstract knowledge, but for want of an early co-ordination of head work and handwork. Much study and mere study is a weariness of the flesh. Vitalize it by applying the hands to work with chemical or physical apparatus, or microscope and scalpel, or plane and auger, file and cold chisel, or hammer and anvil, and thought becomes no longer burdensome and unfruitful.

Again and again the argument has been brought forward that our common school courses are too much crowded now, and the addition of anything more will break down the already over-taxed pupils. But even supposing that something would have to be dropped to make room, are we certain that no portion of the present studies could possibly be replaced by something better, something more easily understood, something more likely to give vigor to mind and body? Is it of the highest importance that every one should go through the school arithmetic from beginning to end? Is the reckoning of pounds, shillings, and pence,—hundred weight, quarters, and pounds,—partial payments, and the like so very conducive to clearness of thought; or are these things so practically useful that the nine hundred and ninety-nine must study them because the thousandth may have occasion for such calculations three or four times in the course of his life? It is even a question whether we really learn to write correctly by committing to memory the abstrusities of English grammar. But there is good reason to believe that it is not so much the number and extent of subjects taught as the continual dull routine which overtasks the growing youth. It has been well said it is not work but worry that kills. There is really room for something more which will break up the tiresome monotony, and show that school work has some relation to real life. We surely should be hardly willing to admit that our children can bear less intellectual labor than those in other countries. When it is found elsewhere that two or four hours a week of handwork may be put into the school course without taking anything out, it is quite likely that here also, if we resolutely face the lion in the way, it will turn out to be a lifeless pretence.

It certainly would be a great gain, if we can by any means so increase the interest of parents and pupils that children will be allowed to remain in school till the end of the course. And then should it even be found advisable to lengthen the term, nobody will object, except perhaps school committees who wish for frequent promotions to make room for annual recruits.

But a more serious objection to the introduction of handwork is the necessary expense of providing extra room and teachers as well as tools and materials. They have found out how to get over this difficulty in Sweden, a country of much more slender resources than we possess. But they prize education there, and are willing to make sacrifices to have it free to all and to have it the best. The prospective advantage justifies the present outlay. We straiten ourselves to lay up money for children who are not so trained that they know how to spend it aright. It were better to be straitened by taxation, if need be, to lay up in them the elements of thrift and ability to provide for themselves. A wise king has said. "There is that scattereth and yet increaseth, there is that withholdeth more than is meet, but it tendeth to poverty." In school matters the peo-

ple too little appreciate this great truth. If we would diminish the great number of incapable ones in the world, those who are not illiterate but do not know how to make themselves useful and are really more or less of a burden to the community, we must somehow shape our instruction so as to give a love of work and a readiness to do handwork or head work as occasion requires. That false standard of honor which does not tolerate soiled hands must be set aside by practical examples of powerful and lively brains joined occasionally to greasy fingers.

The row of applicants for places behind a merchant's counter will not be so interminably long, when there are more school-boys who have wit and strength and skill enough for something else. The necessary cost of an outfit for working in wood is not heavy. It is but a very small percentage of what is regularly raised for school purposes. The continued outlay for teaching, is a more important item, and at present the supply of handwork teachers is far short of even the limited demand. While such services command a premium, the expense of instruction will, of course, be greater than it may be in the better adjusted future. But really, there are not very many communities that are taxed so close up to the extreme limit of endurance that they would feel the slight additional burden required for providing some handwork instruction. Of course there is need of prudence and a careful study of local circumstances, for the same methods are not adapted to all places. In the large towns it is possible to have one central school to which the pupils of the common schools may come at different times. In the cities there may be many lower schools with one central high school for advanced work and study, somewhat after the pattern of the St. Louis and Chicago Manual Training schools. We have our high schools now to fit boys for college, and not over two per cent. of the children go to them, for they are not looking forward to professional life. Is it really just to sustain classical schools for this very small minority, and no corresponding schools suitable for those who should be looking to industrial life? Let us still continue our classical schools, for they are needed. But let us place by their side manual training high schools in which at least ten per cent. of the children would find a place. Let us keep the future workmen in school as long as we can. Then we shall raise up really skilled laborers of whom there is so much need. We shall train instead of importing the men wanted to improve our manufactures. We shall train men and not the human machines that we have to put up with now. As for the scattered country districts, it is not so easy to tell what to do there, till there arises a new order of pedagogues who can teach joinery as well as arithmetic and syntax.

But it is sometimes timidly suggested that if we teach handwork to so many in all the schools, there will by and by be too many of a trade,

too many carpenters and blacksmiths and machinists. There is very little danger, for the great world has a wonderful power of absorption. It should be borne in mind that we aim not at making artisans but at giving dexterity in the use of tools. The carpenter uses the hammer, and so does the blacksmith, and whitesmith, and shoemaker, and saddler, and bricklayer, and stone-cutter, and tinker and gold-beater, and watchmaker, and cooper; and practice with that tool comes not amiss even to the speaker of the noisy House of Representatives. So the underlying principles and motions of all trades may, to a certain extent, be learned by the practice of one. And thus he who has learned to do accurate work in one, may, in case of need, turn to another.

I have even heard it said, by one who could not see beyond the narrowest circle of utilitarianism, that it is useless to practise with all the hand tools, for almost everything is made by machinery now-a-days. The carpenter no longer makes sashes and doors and blinds. Boards are planed and matched by machinery. Mouldings are stuck by machines. The stairs are made by a specialist. The framing is done by one set of men, and the finishing by another. But nevertheless I find that the carpenter, within easy reach of the planing mill, has occasion, sometimes, to plane and bead and rabbet and match by hand. The doors and windows must be fitted by hand. The shingling and flooring are done by hand; and exceedingly few tools have become obsolete. It is said that watches are made by machinery. They have indeed been made by machinery for fifty years, but it is only the parts. The parts must be put together, the mistakes of the machines must be corrected, and the nice adjustments must be made by human hands. The occasional repairs must be made by the hand. The various machines are very nice and precise in their work but they must be built and tended by human hands. A machine planes the iron, but an absolutely true surface must be made by patient scraping with the human hand. Yes, multiply and refine machinery all you will, and there will still be need of well-trained hands.

Our utilitarian has to go but a little farther to land in the dark ages. He should say "most work is done by machinery. Most men only tend a machine and have but one or two things to do which they can learn in a few hours. They have no occasion, about their work, to read or write or count. Many men have gone through life and done well and enjoyed themselves without knowing how to read and write. It is useless to waste time and money for schooling."

Most of us cannot help thinking that there is a moral and social side to man's nature and that the good of society demands the cultivation of the individual,—a cultivation that has reference to something more than earning daily bread. We may even hold that it is the right and the duty of the State to do away illiteracy and afford such an education as is best

calculated to make good citizens. If the whole being is to be cared for, handwork may properly come in and be insisted on, and be given at the public expense.

It must be admitted that, for the mass of people, book instruction has hitherto come far short of realizing all that is desirable. It is now generally understood that unless the body is cared for the mind suffers. Hence gymnastics have come in vogue, in the older nations, much more than among us. But careful observers are beginning to see that something more than muscular strength is needed; the mind and the bodily powers must co-operate. School systems have too long put asunder what God has joined together. In nature's system learning comes by seeing and handling.

The child seizes whatever it can reach, and not unfrequently reduces its toys to their elementary parts. Then in due time comes the desire of reconstruction. The questions "what is it made of?" and "how is it made?" seek for a practical answer. There is a restless eagerness to be doing something, and a wise manager seeks to direct and not to repress. Dam the current wholly and it will break out somewhere with wild havoc. But turn it through the flume and turbine and it will merrily grind all your grists, and go on its way rejoicing, in its ever-widening channel. Boys are very rare indeed who are not delighted to have tools in their hands, and the power of excluding from shopwork may even be used as a means of correction. Handwork affords a change, a pleasant relief from severer memorizing labor. The work is not degrading, it is not distracting, it causes no loss of time. It cannot be otherwise than beneficial to the student, either directly or indirectly, whether he be high or low. The industrial world and the scientific world move and the educational world cannot remain stationary. The signs of the times indicate that the next step of improvement is to be the extension of laboratory work in the higher schools, the training of the hands in the common schools. We may as well be preparing for it, for other nations are astir and we would not be left in the rear.

The authorities in France are alive and are determined that great changes shall be made in the direction of handwork instruction. Holland has been for years quietly extending her excellent Auberchtschoole. Germany is looking to see how her northern neighbors have improved so much on her own ideas. For is not Germany the mother country of the Kindergarten? Has not Germany multiplied her Realschule, and Gewerbeschule, and Kreisgewerbeschule, and Fortbildungschule, and Fachschule, till every want ought to have been supplied? Was it really reserved to Finland and Scandinavia to find the missing link? Have not Bohemia and Switzerland and Germany and Holstein had their sporadic industrial schools, some as far back as a hundred years ago, which somehow were

not fitted to stand the struggle for existence? And is there anything in this new movement which promises longer life and wider range? Yes. In the older schools there was too much regard to work as productive,—too much regard to the letter, and “the letter killeth, but the spirit giveth life.” The animating spirit, the object kept in view is what makes the difference.

England has, at times, for twenty years or more, been agitating the matter of industrial education with varying zeal and gradually dawning light. A parliamentary commission has been investigating the matter for the past three years, and their report has just been printed; and though our British brethren have been slow to act, they are at length taking hold of technical education with characteristic thoroughness and liberality. Two years ago they started a technical school in Bradford, in which handwork has a place, and this institution already has 800 pupils. The Guilds of London have been building a technical college, which was formally opened by the Prince of Wales three weeks ago, and they will soon be ready to commence educational work on the newer plan. In some of the larger cities the common-school boards are introducing the industrial element.

It has been my privilege, in years past, to show gentlemen from the other side of the Atlantic what we are doing in technological education; and when they see our great extension of laboratory practice, they are kind enough to say that we are far ahead of them. I believe that, in some respects, this is really so. The excellent laboratories of Europe are mostly for the special few,—the mass of students are not found in them; but with us the work is required of all, and it is carried out in many departments. But when in the older countries they have begun to widen out and to bring handwork into the technical and lower schools, it is quite time for us to bestir ourselves still more.

In our own country, however, there are some hopeful signs. There is at length a wild glow of light in the eastern horizon. After years of effort, the superintendent of schools in Boston has succeeded in getting an appropriation to enable him to make a trial of handwork in connection with the grammar schools. The legislature of Massachusetts has at last made a law authorizing towns and cities to raise and use money for handwork instruction. Since the beginning of April, classes of twenty each, from eleven different schools in Boston, have received instruction once a week in carpentry, and some of the worst boys have been picked out for these exercises. Familiar as I have been with the work of young men in this line, I little expected to see such progress as these younger boys have made. The neatness, the nice fitting, and the number of the pieces gave full proof that they had been enthusiastic in their work, and that it had done them good. So the matter is started in the old Bay State, and once

started it can hardly be stopped. These 220 boys are sure to be zealous preachers of the new doctrine, and they will make converts among those whom our formal discussions would not reach; but really I believe there is less danger of unbelief or opposition on the part of the people than of haste to adopt. There is much remaining to be learned as to ways and means. There is need of judicious and economical management, and the authorities must grow up by degrees to the work.

The whole matter of education for girls is still in an almost chaotic state. For my part, I believe that something better than sewing and cooking should be given them; but on that side there is greater difficulty, for there is still much prejudice as to the proper sphere of women. There are many who profess to be strongly in favor of industrial education, but they look at the background and the side views rather than the subject itself. Encourage manual-labor schools if you will, but recollect that the pursuit of one narrow line of work to earn money or board is not true industrial training. By all means promote useful and instructive industry in orphan asylums and almshouses and reformatory institutions, but do not stop there. Encourage art schools and drawing in common schools, but remember that imitation and design are not execution, and we must not lose sight of the substance and rest satisfied with the shadow of industry. Special trade schools ought to be multiplied, but it belongs to the particular trades or guilds to attend to them. Their proper time comes after the common school has laid a good foundation, and their work is very much circumscribed. We must look out for a practical education suitable for the great mass of boys and girls. Let it combine the kindergarten and the primary school, the slojd school and the common school. Let it include finger plays and object lessons for the little ones, handwork for the middle schools, drawing, modelling, and manual training in the more advanced schools, and, for as many as can go farther, the physical, chemical, and biological manipulation of the scientific schools and colleges. So shall we at length succeed in bringing up a race of true men and women with trained muscle, trained mind, and executive power.

PROCEEDINGS

OF THE

DEPARTMENT OF ART EDUCATION.

WEDNESDAY AFTERNOON.

This department, organized at Saratoga in July, 1883, held its first annual meeting at Madison, Wis., in connection with the National Educational Association.

The first session was held in the Representatives' Chamber of the Capitol Building, and it was called to order at 2.30 P. M., Wednesday, July 16, 1884, by Hon. James MacAlister, of Philadelphia, who, after a few appropriate remarks, introduced the president of the department, Prof. L. S. Thompson, of Purdue University, Lafayette, Ind.

President Thompson at once proceeded to deliver his inaugural address, which will be found in full further on in the printed proceedings.

At the close of this address the report of the committee on course of study in industrial drawing for the public schools was read by Miss Josephine C. Locke, secretary of the department. The committee making this report was appointed at Saratoga one year ago, and consisted of the following-named persons: Chairman, Hon. James MacAlister, superintendent public schools of Philadelphia, Pa.; Prof. Otto Fuchs, principal Maryland Institute, Baltimore, Md.; Prof. W. S. Goodnough, superintendent drawing, public schools, Columbus, O.; Miss Josephine C. Locke, superintendent drawing, public schools, St. Louis, Mo.; and Prof. Herman Haustein, teacher of drawing, high school, Chicago, Ill.

The full report of the committee, as amended by the department, will be found in its proper place in these proceedings. That part of the report relating to primary schools was discussed earnestly by Profs. Woodward, Peabody, Aldin, Fuchs, Anderson, and others.

On motion of Prof. Otto Fuchs, a committee of five, on nomination of officers, was appointed by the president, to report at the next session.

A committee on vacancies, of which Prof. Walter H. Brackett, of the Massachusetts Normal Art School, of Boston, Mass., is chairman, was appointed.

The department then adjourned to meet to-morrow (Thursday) at 2.30 P. M.

THURSDAY AFTERNOON.

The department met in the Senate Chamber, and was called to order at 2.30 P. M., President L. S. Thompson in the chair.

The department was well attended, and that part of the report on Course of Study relating to grammar, high, and normal schools was taken up and discussed by Profs. Fuchs, Goodnough, Perry, Brackett, Harrison, Hull, Mrs. Dimock, Miss Webster, Miss Locke, Mrs. Hicks, President Thompson, and others, after which it was adopted.

The committee on election of officers for the ensuing year reported as follows :

President. — Otto Fuchs, principal Maryland Institute, Baltimore, Md.

Vice-President. — H. T. Perry, supervisor of drawing, Worcester, Mass.

Secretary. — Josephine C. Locke, supervisor of drawing, St. Louis, Mo.

The report was then unanimously adopted.

Mr. Fuchs offered the following: "I move that a part of the program of exercises for next year shall consist of practical exercises in teaching drawing in the several grades of public schools."

Adopted.

Miss Lillian Hoxie, of Emporia, Kan., then offered the following :

Resolved, That the art department of the National Teachers' Association recommend the State teachers' associations meeting during the following year to give before the teachers of such meetings practical illustrations of methods in drawing presented by competent teachers.

Adopted.

After these proceedings a unanimous vote of thanks was moved and extended to President L. S. Thompson; also to Vice-President W. S. Perry and Secretary Josephine C. Locke and the committee, for their efficient services.

JOSEPHINE C. LOCKE, *Secretary.*

INAUGURAL ADDRESS OF L. S. THOMPSON,

President of the Department of Art Education.

Ladies and Gentlemen, of the Department of Art Education: I see before me a larger number of teachers of drawing, and others interested in Art Education, than has ever been found in a single assembly in this country. Under these circumstances it becomes my first duty to thank you sincerely for the distinguished honor you have conferred upon me in making me your first president.

Asking your kind indulgence while discharging the duties of my office, and again expressing my unfeigned gratitude to you for the trust you have reposed in me, I proceed at once to read my *Inaugural Address*.

HOW DRAWING SHOULD BE TAUGHT IN OUR PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

For the last ten or twelve years, when anything has been said in our teachers' meetings on the subject of Drawing, it has generally been to show the importance of the subject. Believing, however, that my present audience need no further argument in this direction, I shall address myself at once to the task of marking out briefly a comprehensive and systematic scheme of art education, and showing how to teach drawing successfully in our public schools.

And first, let us inquire, what is art education? These terms art education have been made to include so much that they are difficult to define. By art education, we do not refer to mere picture making, or copying pictures or drawings made by some one else; nor to a little dabbling in water or oil-color painting by those who have never learned to draw. We have reference to the study and representation of *form*. We mean such a thorough study and mastery of form as will enable one to express his thoughts with the pencil, the brush, or with the chisel, in solid materials.

Having defined these terms, we will first say, in a general way that a rational scheme of art education must be so arranged and so taught as to harmonize with, and to assist in carrying forward, the other lines of study already organized and approved by long experience. In other words, if

art education is to be successful, it must be so systematized as to be a necessary part of general education. While it may be considered as a justifiable end in itself, it must also be a means for the growth and development of the mind and a handmaid to the study of other subjects, such as spelling, reading, writing, arithmetic, geography, history, physiology, etc. Hence, its design should be, not to create that which has sometimes been called "special skill," but "to make that skill general by destroying its specialty." Its true function, then, in general education, is not merely to educate mechanics or artisans, but "to develop accuracy of perception," to train the mental faculties, to form the judgment, and hence to strengthen the whole mind.

Again this scheme of art education must not only help to build up and sustain all other proper lines of study, but its different departments, as industrial art, sculpture, and painting, must be so developed that neither will interfere with the others, but support them, "like stones in an edifice, or like links in a chain." In a general way these three departments include every particular branch of art study that appeals to the mind through the sense of sight. They are not entirely distinct but overlap one another.

Let us try to define these terms. By industrial art, we mean such drawings or graphic representations as are useful in the different trades, such as all kinds of building and manufacturing. Industrial art includes all kinds of engraving on wood, copper, steel, or stone. It includes all kinds of carving in wood, plaster, stone, or marble. It includes all kinds of decorative design, flat and sculptured, or ornament applied to objects to render them more beautiful or attractive. It includes conventionalization of plants for purposes of design, the study of historical ornament, harmony of color, water-color painting, fresco painting, and modelling of ornament in clay and plaster.

It is both free-hand and instrumental. Under free-hand, besides the above described practical handwork, we may have drawing from copy, model and object drawing in outline, shading with the crayon point, stump, or in monochrome, the application of color with the brush and sketching original designs. Under instrumental drawing, we have geometrical drawing, orthographic projection, isometric projection, descriptive geometry, linear perspective, projection of shadows, machine and architectural drawing. From the preceding enumeration it is seen that the division industrial art encroaches on the domain of both sculpture and painting.

By sculpture we mean the expression of thought in solid substances, or the art of carving or chiselling forms in wood, stone, or other materials, or of forming images of visible objects, or statues, from solid materials. The artistic and typical process in all forms of sculpture consists in modelling the original in clay, wax, or plaster. Sculpture, then, includes the modelling of ornament and the human figure; engraving, wood-carving,

stone-cutting, moulding and casting in plaster and metals; also the study of anatomy and the natural sciences. It will thus appear that in its widest sense it requires a considerable knowledge of what we have defined to be industrial art, and it is itself partly absorbed in it.

Painting is the art of representing objects by the addition of color to that of form. It includes oil, water-color, and distemper painting. These general divisions may again be divided into portrait, landscape, marine, historical, figure, fresco, decorative painting, etc. Here, again, you will see that painting is also industrial in some of its branches, as in fresco and other decorative painting.

I have attempted to define these three general divisions of art and to show their relations to one another, that we might realize how extensive this subject of art education is, and that we might discover whether or not there is a natural or logical order of procedure in mastering them.

We know there is a logical order for mathematical studies; and, while the natural order in art subjects may not be so clearly defined, we believe there may be some order of development that will be better than most if not all others. We consider this investigation of the greatest importance, even if we only wish to teach the merest elements of an art education, because we should begin in such a way that the work may be afterward carried on, if desirable, in a natural manner and to any extent.

We are confronted then with this question and we must try to answer it: Which shall be taught first, Industrial Art, Sculpture, or Painting?

We have intimated that these three departments overlap, and mutually support one another; hence it is that he who knows most of industrial art and sculpture, as previously defined, is the best prepared to study painting; he who knows most of industrial art and painting is the best prepared to study sculpture; and he who knows most of sculpture and painting is the best prepared to study industrial art. It thus appears that these lines of art study so merge into one another that no one can become a complete master of any one department of art without some acquaintance with all other departments—and the more intimate the acquaintance, the better.

Again, since these departments are so intimately allied, there must be a connecting thread or leading idea running through the whole subject of art education. We cannot stop, at this moment, to prove that this leading idea is *form* or *shape*.

Now, the science of form is geometry, and hence we believe we are safe in saying that geometry—not necessarily demonstrative or theoretical, but practical geometry—is the starting point for all lines of art study, whether industrial or artistic. In confirmation of this idea we quote from Prof. Joseph Saugl, of Vienna, who made a report on the subject of art education as exhibited at the World's Fair in 1873, after a careful study of the methods pursued in different countries. He says: "The world, so

far as it is concerned in drawing, is probably unanimous in the conviction that instruction in its first stages must begin with geometrical forms, and that ornament must be practised to a certain degree before figure-drawing can be taken up."

Now, if our positions so far have been well taken, we are prepared to say, with some confidence, that as forms of two dimensions are more easily mastered than those of three, and as industrial art is more obviously geometrical than sculpture and painting, and as industrial art is more frequently concerned with representing forms of two dimensions, therefore *it* (industrial art) would seem to furnish the best starting-point for a course of art education. Still further, as sculpture is closely allied to and involved in industrial art, and as it presents less difficulties to the beginner than painting, which requires a greater or more subtle knowledge of light, shade, and color, therefore *it* (sculpture) should follow, in a general way, industrial art, and be itself followed by painting.

Let us not be misunderstood at this point. We do not mean to say, by the above arrangement, that all of industrial art should be mastered before anything of sculpture or painting is learned, — indeed, as we have stated several times before, there is much of industrial art that requires some knowledge of both sculpture and painting.

We see but one way out of this apparent paradox in attempting to arrange a systematic course of art study. Instead of arranging our course in straight lines, we must arrange it in spiral cycles, — that is, our elementary work must form a small cycle running through the three departments discussed, taking up only such points as can be grasped by little children. Our intermediate work may form another, larger, and rising cycle, constituting the second coil of our spiral. Our grammar grades may form a third, widening, and rising coil, our high school a fourth, our professional schools a fifth, and so on to any limit that may be reached by human understanding and skill.

If our line of thought so far is worth anything, we reach the conclusion that the proper work of the art-master is to teach *form*, its actual production in solid material and its representation. The production of material forms and their representation requires a thorough knowledge of form and its infinite combinations, together with light and shade and color. He who has a complete mastery of these, theoretically and practically, has a systematic and comprehensive art education.

We come now to the question, How shall we teach art in the public schools, — that is, how shall we teach form, light and shade, and color?

If art has any use in this world, — and we certainly think it is co-ordinate with the true and the good, — it is to express a thought, a feeling, or a wish, — that is, art is pre-eminently a means of expression; it is a language, — a universal language. If art is a language, it should be

taught as a language. Our foremost educators say the theory or grammar of a language should be taught through its practical use in speaking and writing. So the principles and theory of art must be taught through practice in producing real forms in clay or some soft material, and the representation of objects by means of drawing, which is one of the languages of form. The art education of mankind began in the use of clay, and early art and history are more indebted to this material than to any other. It was God's material in the creation of man, and we believe there is no other material that can take its place in the art education of the human race. We cannot stop here to mark out in detail a proper course in clay-modelling, but we wish to emphasize the fact that the use of clay should precede and afterwards accompany every method of art instruction.

We come now to the *representation* of form or drawing proper. The child in language must first get control of his organs of speech, but this must first be done by practice in speaking rather than by practising upon elementary sounds. So the child in drawing must first get control of his eye and hand by their use in drawing concretely, and not by drawing abstract lines.

A child will not learn to speak fluently and well unless it have an idea to express and a motive for expressing it. And here we would suggest the true secret of teaching the drawing-language. Give the children ideas or feelings in such a way that they shall have a motive for expressing them in the language of art, called drawing.

In learning a language we make use of its alphabet, but we must not mistake the alphabet for the language itself. So likewise in drawing we must use points, lines, light, shade, and color as an alphabet, but these do not constitute the language of drawing. The language consists in the thought, feeling, or wish that is expressed by the relation which points, lines, light, shade, and color bear to one another. Now, all these possible relations, in the highest work of ideal art as well as in the merest sketch of a few lines, may be expressed by three simple words, — *position*, *direction*, and *distance*.

Any one, then, who can place the alphabet of drawing — such as points, lines, light, shade, and color — in their desired positions, having their desired directions, and at their desired distances, is master of the *art* of drawing, and he may use it as a language if he have any ideas to express.

Before the draughtsman, the designer, the architect, the sculptor, or the painter can make a single line or point he must ask himself, and answer his question, *where?* This involves *position*, the first and most important of the three relations named, and the one that may be said to include the other two.

For practical work in drawing then, we begin with position and with that part of the drawing alphabet called the *point*, which is the simplest and easiest of execution of all representative things. At the beginning, the hand and the eye, or the mind that sees through the eye, are untrained. These must be trained somewhat together, although in each separate act or step the mind must first perceive what is to be done. When the mind has an idea to express, one does not wish to be distracted by a method of execution so difficult as to withdraw it from the idea to the manner of expression; hence it is that we begin with the simplest letter of our alphabet, — the point or dot.

After an explanation of the words "top," "bottom," "right," "left," "middle," and "centre," ask the child to place a dot at the centre of its slate. This very first step involves position, it involves direction between opposite corners, and it involves equal distances from the sides. The child has gone right so far if it never takes another drawing lesson; but if it wishes to pursue art study any further, either industrial or fine art, it is still right, because it has exercised its powers in the same way that any artisan or artist must and does use his.

Now ask the child to place a dot at any convenient distance above the central dot, and then another the same distance below it. It has a motive in its own mind for making this last dot, — that is, it has a thought or a feeling to express, — it feels that a dot is necessary below the centre to balance the one above it. Now let it place a dot at the same distance to the left of the centre and it can scarcely wait for permission to place a dot at the right side of the slate also, because it feels that there is something lacking, and it wishes to express this feeling by putting a dot in a certain position.

Again, ask the child to place a dot half way between the upper dot and the centre one. It now wishes to put a dot below, left, and right in the same relative position. The artistic idea of symmetry begins to dawn on the young mind, and it feels that if there is a dot at the left there should be one at the right also. In short, it is now using drawing — that is, the placing of dots in certain relative positions — as a language to express its own thoughts and feelings.

When the hand gets a little skill and power in holding and handling the pencil in making dots, let lines — vertical, horizontal, and oblique — be introduced gradually, one at a time, and drawn from one dot to another previously placed by the pupil, keeping in mind the idea of symmetry all the time. These lines should not be drawn separately and abstractly, or in uniform rows, but in some concrete figure so as to express an idea.

Still later introduce curves on the same plan, — that is, in regular symmetrical figures. We say in regular symmetrical figures. This is important direction, because when a curve is drawn in such a ~~figure~~

child sees and feels the need of a number of other curves to balance this one, and it desires to draw them independent of the directions of the teacher.

In connection with and following this work with lines, vertical, horizontal, and oblique, there will be constantly occurring angles,—right, acute, and obtuse,—triangles,—isosceles, equilateral, and scalene,—quadrilaterals, squares, oblongs, rhombs, and rhomboids; circles, ovals, and ellipses. Whenever one of these forms is used give it its proper name,—call it by that name yourself and require the children to call it by the same. Do not attempt to teach geometrical definitions of these things, but first having illustrated the idea by concrete examples, give them their correct names, and the children will soon use them understandingly.

Whatever drawing from copy is done after these elementary exercises should generally be from historical ornament. We make this suggestion because examples from Egyptian, Greek, Roman, Byzantine, Moresque, and Gothic ornament will not only give as valuable a training of the eye and hand as any drawing from copy, but they will cultivate the taste and give the children an idea of correct design and style in ornament.

From the very beginning, in connection with the exercises just recommended, we would give at least one lesson per week in dictation drawing. We mean by this that the teacher shall stand or sit before the class and dictate or describe in words, point by point and line by line, what the children are to do. The teacher draws nothing, and there is no drawing done on the board, but the children are obliged to translate the language of the teacher into lines and draw them. This is one of the most valuable methods of teaching drawing yet devised, and if I were confined to a single method I would probably select this. By this method the power of imagination and conception is cultivated, and drawing is treated purely as a language to express the child's own thought.

From almost the very beginning, I would have a lesson, every week or two at most, in memory drawing,—that is, I would select one of the most important figures previously drawn from copy or dictation and have it drawn entirely from memory. This cultivates the power of remembering forms, which is a very useful faculty to any one.

Early in this elementary course, I would introduce simple exercises in inventive drawing. This can be very easily done, if there is no attempt to make brick without straw, as is often the case. Furnish the children with the proper materials and give them suggestive ideas to express and the results will be satisfactory.

To make a beginning, give each child two sticks (pieces of wire, match sticks, or pins will do), and suggest that these sticks may be arranged in several ways on the desk, as crossing each other, touching at the ends, etc. When they have made an arrangement let them draw it on their

slates, using the sticks as rulers by which to draw the lines. At another time give each pupil three sticks, and allow him to arrange and draw them in as many different ways as he can. Then give out four sticks, five sticks, etc. The figures that they can now invent will be very great in number.

As another step, cut out pieces of paper, or card-board, one inch square, and give them to the children in twos, threes, fours, and so on, as in the case of the sticks. The figures that may be formed with these squares will be many and very interesting. Right-angled triangles, oblongs, circles, semi-circles, and other geometrical figures may be treated in the same manner. Since invention, or arrangement, is the chief aim in the lessons we are now describing, there will be no objection to the children's laying the cards on their slates and marking around them with their pencils.

As a still further step, various curved line figures, as conventionalized buds, flowers, and leaves may be cut out of card-board and used in making designs.

After these elementary exercises have been used as suggested, in which the material for designs are furnished ready made, the children should be taught how to take a leaf, a flower, or a plant, and conventionalize it, that is, make it symmetrical and thus prepare it for ornamental purposes. In all exercises in invention and design, the children should be taught to use all possible mechanical aids in repeating similar parts of a design.

If drawing has been taught as we have here described, about the fifth or sixth school year, the pupil may profitably take up model and object drawing. Here, again, as from the beginning, geometry comes to our aid. We begin with geometrical objects as the hoop, cylinder, cone, cube, prism, and pyramid, because they are regular and definite in form. We would first have these objects drawn in outline, beginning with objects that are round in section, because they are foreshortened only in one direction. Exercises in drawing cylinders, cones, cups, pails, barrels, flower-pots, vases, etc., should be followed by lessons from the cube, prisms, pyramids, boxes, furniture, and buildings.

This instruction in outline drawing should be followed still later by shading with various mediums and color.

About the same time that model and object drawing is commenced, the working of problems in plane geometry may be taken up. These problems are to be solved by the use of the ruler and compass, and beside their value as practical knowledge, they are very useful in forming habits of neatness and accuracy. Geometrical drawing naturally opens up the way for orthographic projection, or working drawings as shown in plans, elevations, sections, and developments, and also for scientific perspective.

We have not time to go into details either in our general scheme, or in methods of teaching, but it will be seen, from what has preceded, that our course of study is meant to be comprehensive. Experience in the school-

room has shown that no single phase of drawing, or method of instruction can interest every mind. Hence, by the practice of several devices we may reach and benefit every pupil.

Our leading thought is that drawing must be treated as any other school study. Let the principles of sound education be applied here as elsewhere, and the result will be just as satisfactory. Teach drawing as an integral part of general culture, alike necessary to the highest success of every individual.

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE.

PROF. L. S. THOMPSON, *President of the Department of Art:*

Dear Sir: Your committee, appointed at the meeting of the Department of Art Education of the National Educational Association held at Saratoga, 1883, to report at this meeting on a Course of Study in Industrial Drawing for Public Schools, beg to submit

First. The educational and practical considerations, on which the Course of Study presented by your committee is based ;

Second. The character of the existing Instruction in Drawing in Public Schools, Normal Schools, and Technical Schools.

Third. Suggestions of a thoroughly graded Course of Study in Industrial Drawing for Public Schools.

Fourth. Suggestions of a graded Course for Normal Schools.

Fifth. Recommendations and suggestions of the committee for efficiently carrying out these Courses in all grades of Public and Normal Schools.

DRAWING EDUCATIONALLY AND PRACTICALLY CONSIDERED.

As preliminary to the task assigned to your committee, it was deemed advisable to formulate the views of the committee as to the educational and definite character of Drawing as well as to what may be considered sound methods of instruction.

There are three successive stages in mental development : perception, thought, expression. Elementary education must reach these powers primarily through the senses. No single study deals more directly with sense-perception than drawing, and it should, therefore, have a recognized educational rank in any scheme of elementary instruction. The training afforded by drawing should begin with the first grades of primary schools, and continue in progressive order throughout the entire school life like any other study. A course of study in drawing, should, therefore, provide for continuous instruction throughout the whole school period. Drawing, educationally considered, has two aspects :

First, it is a means of studying form, that inseparable characteristic of all that goes to make up the visible world ;

Second, it is a graphic language for expressing thought in regard to form in nature, art, science, and industry. The study of form should be presented by objects, and according to sound principles of mental develop-

ment which require first perception, then absorption, then expression and creation ; no one of these powers being neglected. Children should be led, therefore, first to perceive forms through the senses of sight and touch. When this training has been provided, pupils should be led to express by making and drawing

1. What they see.
2. What they know.
3. What they conceive.

Thus developing from perception to expression and creation. In a course of study in drawing, the continuous element should be the study of form from models and objects—geometric solids being given first as the simplest forms.

As education should proceed regularly from the simple to the complex, a course of study in drawing should be carefully graded both on the perceiving and expressing side.

As drawing involves a study of form and of objects, and the expression of ideas derived from such study, its grading and classification should be with regard to the manner of studying the models and objects, and the thoughts to be expressed. The chief educational points to be observed in the study of the forms of objects and the thoughts to be expressed in regard to them are

First. The actual forms of objects and how to represent them.

Second. The appearance of the objects to the eye, and how to represent their appearance.

Third. The enrichment of objects by ornamentation and the principles relating thereto.

All other divisions of drawing range themselves readily under these three heads, according to the nature of the work. A comprehensive course of study should make definite and evenly sustained provision for the development of these three divisions so that about midway in the course the instruction should crystallize into the clearly defined subjects of

Constructive Drawing.

Representative Drawing.

Decorative Drawing.

In Drawing there are two methods of execution :

1. By the free-hand.
2. With the use of instruments.

The former is mainly used in drawing from objects, from nature, and in pictorial work generally. The latter is mainly used in constructive and industrial work, such as machine, building, and architectural drawings where great accuracy is required. A proper course of study will provide for the

development of skill in drawing by both of these methods. Drawing, practically considered, is an essential element of all mechanical, scientific, technical, and art work, thus entering into a large proportion of the occupations of life.

A course of study for public schools should recognize the practical as well as the educational outcome of the instruction, and should look forward to the broader development of advanced study. To this end, the instruction in the public schools should conform to the requirements of the study in higher education, both in free-hand and instrumental drawing.

CONDITION OF DRAWING.

With these general views in mind, the committee deemed it advisable to ascertain as clearly as possible the character of the present instruction in drawing in public schools, normal schools, and higher institutions, before attempting to formulate a course of study, and accordingly circulars asking information in a series of questions were sent to School Superintendents, Normal Schools, Schools of Mechanic Arts, Technical Schools, Schools of Design, Colleges, and Universities. A very large proportion of the schools and institutions applied to have given ready response, by answers more or less specific, to the questions of the committee.

These replies have been examined with great care, and the information thus obtained enables your committee to present a general view of the condition of the study of drawing in the public and normal schools, and in the scientific and technical schools of the United States, which is of no little educational importance in its bearing upon the present inquiry.

PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

By these are meant all those schools, from primary to high schools, which are supported by public moneys.

The following seventy-two cities have reported, and the list comprises nearly all the cities that have made serious efforts to introduce Drawing. Their replies have been classified under seven heads in the following table.*

*In arranging accompanying tables the committee wish their basis of classification distinctly understood.

In Table A cities lacking supervision or objects to teach with the character of such instruction must be necessarily incomplete and is marked so. Also, wherever the instruction is not developed on the three parallel lines of Construction, Representation, and Decoration. In many cities the subject of Construction as defined in this Report is not understood or practised in the Primary or Grammar Schools.

In Table B "Drawing, a study in Public Schools" means, are students in Normal Schools being educated in the direction of the work they are to teach in Primary and Grammar Schools, the character of which has already been defined in the Report?

Schools where the geometric type forms are not made the basis of the very beginning of child-teaching, so that before pupils know lines they know form as form in the concrete, are classified under the head of "Form" as "No," meaning they do not teach it in this sense though they may draw from objects in perspective.

TABLE A.

	Drawing a regular Study.	Amount of time per week.	Super- vision.	Instruction Graded or Ungraded.	Objects and Solids for Instruction.	Character of Instruction. Parallel lines (of Developm't.	Work in High Schools.
Hartford, Conn.	Yes.	1 hr.	Yes.	Imperfectly graded.	Partial supply.	Incomplete.	No instruction.
New Haven, Conn.	Yes.	1 hr.	Yes.	Graded.	No supply.	Incomplete.	Partially developed.
Wilmington, Conn.	Yes.	2 hrs.	No.	Graded.	Partial supply.	Incomplete.	No instruction.
Wilmington, Del.	Yes.	14 hrs.	Yes.	Optional.	Partial supply.	Complete.	No instruction.
Washington, D. C.	Yes.	14 hrs.	No.	Graded.	No supply.	Incomplete.	No instruction.
Bellville, Ill.	Yes.	14 hrs.	Yes.	Ungraded.	Partial supply.	Complete.	Partially developed.
Chicago, Ill.	Yes.	14 hrs.	No.	Graded.	Partial supply.	Incomplete.	No instruction.
Moline, Ill.	Yes.	14 hrs.	No.	Imperfectly graded.	No supply.	Incomplete.	No instruction.
Ottumwa, Ill.	Yes.	1 hr.	No.	Ungraded.	No supply.	Incomplete.	No instruction.
Rock Island, Ill.	Yes.	1 hr.	No.	Ungraded.	No supply.	Incomplete.	No instruction.
Indianapolis, Ind.	Yes.	14 to 2 hrs.	Yes.	Graded.	Well supplied.	Complete.	Partially developed.
Vincennes, Ind.	Yes.	1 hr.	Partial.	No drawing.	Partial supply.	Incomplete.	No instruction.
Burlington, Iowa	Yes.	2 hrs.	No.	Graded.	Partial supply.	Complete.	No instruction.
Davenport, Iowa	Yes.	34 hrs.	No.	Imperfectly graded.	No supply.	Incomplete.	No instruction.
Des Moines, Iowa	Yes.	40 min.	No.	Graded.	Partial supply.	Incomplete.	No instruction.
Louisville, Ky.	Yes.	1 hr.	No.	Ungraded.	No supply.	Incomplete.	No instruction.
Auburn, Me.	Yes.	14 hrs.	Yes.	Graded.	Well supplied.	Incomplete.	Partially developed.
Baltimore, Md.	Yes.	14 to 2 hrs.	Yes.	Graded.	Well supplied.	Complete.	Well developed.
Boston, Mass.	Yes.	14 hrs.	Yes.	Graded.	No supply.	Incomplete.	No instruction.
Fall River, Mass.	Yes.	14 hrs.	No.	Graded.	No supply.	Incomplete.	Partially developed.
Haverhill, Mass.	Yes.	14 hrs.	Yes.	Graded.	Well supplied.	Complete.	Well developed.
Lawrence, Mass.	Yes.	14 hrs.	Yes.	Graded.	No supply.	Incomplete.	Partially developed.
Newton, Mass.	Yes.	14 hrs.	Yes.	Graded.	No supply.	Complete.	Well developed.
Pittsfield, Mass.	Yes.	14 hrs.	No.	Graded.	No supply.	Incomplete.	No instruction.
Springfield, Mass.	Yes.	14 hrs.	Yes.	Graded.	Partial supply.	Complete.	Partially developed.
Waltham, Mass.	Yes.	1 hr.	Yes.	Graded.	No supply.	Complete.	No instruction.
Worcester, Mass.	Yes.	14 hrs.	Yes.	Graded.	Well supplied.	Complete.	Well developed.
Adrian, Mich.	Yes.	14 hrs.	Yes.	Imperfectly graded.	No supply.	Incomplete.	No instruction.
Ann Arbor, Mich.	Yes.	14 hrs.	Yes.	Imperfectly graded.	No supply.	Incomplete.	No instruction.
East Saginaw, Mich.	Yes.	14 hrs.	Yes.	Imperfectly graded.	No supply.	Incomplete.	No instruction.
Detroit, Mich.	Yes.	14 hrs.	Yes.	Graded.	Partial supply.	Complete.	No instruction.
Grand Rapids, Mich.	Yes.	14 hrs.	Yes.	Imperfectly graded.	No supply.	Incomplete.	No instruction.

Port Huron, Mich.	• • • • •	• •	• •	Optional. Graded.	No report.	Complete.	Partial developm't.
Minneapolis, Minn.	• • • • •	Yes.	1 hr.	Imperfectly graded.	Partial supply.	Incomplete.	No instruction.
Stillwater, Minn.	• • • • •	No.	2 hrs.	Graded.	No supply.	Complete.	Partially developed.
St. Paul, Minn.	• • • • •	Yes.	1½ hrs.	Graded.	Partial supply.	Complete.	Partially developed.
Winona, Minn.	• • • • •	Yes.	1 hr.	Graded.	Well supplied.	Complete.	Partially developed.
St. Louis, Mo.	• • • • •	Yes.	1½ hrs.	Imperfectly graded.	No supply.	Incomplete.	No instruction.
Franklin Fall, N. H.	• • • • •	No.	1½ hrs.	Imperfectly graded.	No supply.	Incomplete.	No instruction.
Nashua, N. H.	• • • • •	No.	50 min.	Graded.	No supply.	Incomplete.	No high school.
Camden, N. J.	• • • • •	No.	2 hrs.	Imperfectly graded.	No supply.	Incomplete.	No instruction.
Elizabeth, N. J.	• • • • •	Yes.	1 hr.	Imperfectly graded.	No supply.	Incomplete.	No instruction.
New Brunswick, N. J.	• • • • •	No.	1 hr.	Graded.	Partial supply.	Complete.	No instruction.
Newark, N. J.	• • • • •	No.	2 hrs.	Imperfectly graded.	No supply.	Incomplete.	No high school.
Plainfield, N. J.	• • • • •	Yes.	1 hr.	Graded.	No supply.	Incomplete.	No instruction.
Trenton, N. J.	• • • • •	No.	1 hr.	Graded.	Partial supply.	Complete.	Partially developed.
Auburn, N. Y.	• • • • •	Yes.	1½ hrs.	Graded.	Partial supply.	Incomplete.	Partially developed.
Poughkeepsie, N. Y.	• • • • •	Yes.	1½ hrs.	Graded.	Partial supply.	Complete.	Partially developed.
Syracuse, N. Y.	• • • • •	Yes.	1½ hrs.	Graded.	Well supplied.	Complete.	Well developed.
Columbus, Ohio	• • • • •	Yes.	1½ hrs.	Graded.	• • • • •	• • • • •	• • • • •
Cleveland, Ohio	• • • • •	• •	• •	No drawing.	• • • • •	• • • • •	• • • • •
Dayton, Ohio	• • • • •	Yes.	1½ hrs.	Graded.	Partial supply.	Complete.	No instruction.
Hamilton, Ohio	• • • • •	Yes.	1 hr.	Imperfectly graded.	No supply.	Incomplete.	No instruction.
Urbana, Ohio	• • • • •	Partial.	1½ hrs.	Imperfectly graded.	Partial supply.	Incomplete.	No instruction.
Tiffin, Ohio	• • • • •	No.	1 hr.	Ungraded.	No supply.	Incomplete.	No instruction.
Salem, Oregon	• • • • •	Yes.	1½ hrs.	Graded.	No supply.	Incomplete.	No instruction.
Alleghany, Pa.	• • • • •	Yes.	1½ hrs.	Graded.	No supply.	Incomplete.	No instruction.
Altoona, Pa.	• • • • •	No.	1 hr.	Ungraded.	No supply.	Incomplete.	No instruction.
Bradford, Pa.	• • • • •	No.	1½ hrs.	Graded.	No supply.	Incomplete.	No instruction.
Chester, Pa.	• • • • •	No.	1½ hrs.	Graded.	No supply.	Incomplete.	No instruction.
Easton, Pa.	• • • • •	No.	2 hrs.	Imperfectly graded.	No supply.	Incomplete.	No instruction.
Erie, Pa.	• • • • •	Yes.	1 hr.	Graded.	No supply.	Incomplete.	Partially developed.
Titusville, Pa.	• • • • •	Partial.	50 min.	Graded.	Partial supply.	Complete.	No instruction.
Lancaster, Pa.	• • • • •	No.	1 hr.	Ungraded.	Partial supply.	Incomplete.	No instruction.
Philadelphia, Pa.	• • • • •	No.	1 hr.	Graded.	No supply.	Incomplete.	No instruction.
York, Pa.	• • • • •	No.	2 hrs.	Imperfectly graded.	Partial supply.	Complete.	Partially developed.
Milwaukee, Wis.	• • • • •	Yes.	1½ hrs.	Graded.	Partial supply.	Incomplete.	Partially developed.
Racine, Wis.	• • • • •	No.	Not stated.	Imperfectly graded.	No supply.	Incomplete.	No instruction.
Oshkosh, Wis.	• • • • •	No.	2 hrs.	Ungraded.	No supply.	Incomplete.	No instruction.
Philadelphia, Pa.	• • • • •	No.	1½ hrs.	Graded.	No supply.	Incomplete.	See Table B.

INDEX.

- Drawing a regular study, means, Is drawing obligatory on all pupils?
 Amount of time per week, means, Length of time given to teaching Drawing and Form.
 Supervision, means, Is there a special supervisor employed?
 Instruction graded, etc., means, Is the work arranged to develop the study in regular sequence?
 Character of instruction, means, Is the study developed along three parallel lines of instruction, viz., Construction, knowledge of the facts of solid objects and their application to constructed work; Representation, knowledge of the appearance of form in two and three dimensions acquired by direct study from the object; Decoration, knowledge of the ornamentation of form, obedience to correct laws of design, and practice in conventionalism from nature.
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Under this classification it will be observed

- That sixty-nine cities report Drawing as a regular study;
 That the average time devoted to Drawing is an hour and a half per week;
 That thirty-five of these cities have special supervision of the study;
 That in forty-one the instruction is graded;
 That in seven the schools are well supplied with models and objects for the work; in twenty partially supplied;
 That in twenty the instruction is incomplete;
 That in four it is well developed through all grades, including high schools, in two fairly, and in fourteen partially.

These statements show to a certain extent what is being done, but a glance at the negative side will show strongly the imperfect condition of the study. It is safe to remark that satisfactory instruction will be found to depend upon the following important conditions:

- Good supervision, and proper training of teachers;
 Suitable objects to be used in the instruction.

One-half of these cities have no supervision in drawing, while nearly two-thirds report as having no objects for use in teaching drawing and only one-tenth are well supplied. Consequently, we find that in more than half of the schools, the study is not properly graded and but very few in which the primary instruction is intelligently given; while in more than two-thirds of the cities, the instruction is incomplete, taking up only one or two of the three subjects necessary for the proper educational work in drawing.

Under these circumstances we find that in five-sixths of the high schools there is either no instruction or that it is very inadequately developed. To summarize these results, we may say the returns from primary and grammar schools show a good amount of time, force, and money devoted to the teaching of drawing, but that the provisions for intelligent supervision, and the supply of objects from which to give the instruction is so meagre as to cause the instruction in more than two-thirds of the schools to be seriously misdirected and all other efforts greatly impaired. The importance of thorough public school instruction will be more apparent when we come to consider the work in the scientific and technical schools.

NORMAL SCHOOLS.

It is the function of Normal Schools to train teachers for the public schools. The nature of the instruction in Drawing in the Normal Schools is therefore of special interest in this enquiry.

The following table gives the substance of the replies from forty of the Normal Schools which reported to the committee.

TABLE B.

	Special Teacher.	Drawing, a Public School Study.	The Study of Form.	Construction.	Pictorial.	Decoration.	Obligatory.	Time per Week.	Appliances.
Gorham, Me.	Yes.	No.	No.	Imperfect.	Fair.	None.	Yes.	1½ hrs.	Moderate.
Boston, Mass.	Yes.	Yes.	Yes.	Imperfect.	Good.	Good.	Yes.	2 hrs.	Good.
Framingham, Mass.	Yes.	No.	No.	Imperfect.	Good.	Good.	Yes.	2 hrs.	Good.
Salem, Mass.	Yes.	Yes.	No.	Imperfect.	Good.	Good.	Yes.	2 hrs.	Good.
Bridgewater, Mass.	Yes.	Yes.	Yes.	Imperfect.	Good.	Good.	Yes.	2 hrs.	Good.
Worcester, Mass.	Yes.	No.	No.	Imperfect.	Good.	Good.	Yes.	1½ hrs.	Good.
Providence, R. I.	No.	No.	No.	Imperfect.	Imperfect.	Imperfect.	Yes.	Not given.	Moderate.
Randolph, Vt.	No.	No.	No.	Imperfect.	Imperfect.	None.	Yes.	3½ hrs.	Poor.
New Britain, Conn.	Yes.	No.	No.	Imperfect.	Imperfect.	Imperfect.	Yes.	4 hrs.	Good.
Cortland, N. Y.	Yes.	No.	No.	None.	Imperfect.	Imperfect.	Yes.	3½ hrs.	Moderate.
Geneseo, N. Y.	Yes.	No.	No.	None.	Imperfect.	None.	Yes.	5 hrs.	Moderate.
Fredonia, N. Y.	Yes.	No.	No.	None.	Imperfect.	None.	Yes.	5 hrs.	Not given.
Albany, N. Y.	No.	No.	No.	Imperfect.	Imperfect.	Imperfect.	Yes.	5 hrs.	Moderate.
Buffalo, N. Y.	Yes.	No.	Yes.	Imperfect.	Good.	Good.	Yes.	2 hrs.	Good.
Oswego, N. Y.	Yes.	Yes.	Yes.	Imperfect.	Good.	Imperfect.	Yes.	3 hrs.	Good.
Philadelphia, Pa.	Yes.	No.	No.	Imperfect.	Good.	Good.	Yes.	3½ hrs.	Excellent.
Rushtown, Pa.	Yes.	No.	No.	None.	Good.	None.	Yes.	3½ hrs.	Moderate.
Bloomsburg, Pa.	Yes.	Yes.	No.	None.	Good.	None.	Yes.	Not given.	Moderate.
Indiana, Pa.	Yes.	No.	No.	None.	Imperfect.	None.	Yes.	Not given.	Moderate.
Millersville, Pa.	Yes.	Yes.	No.	None.	Imperfect.	Imperfect.	Yes.	3½ hrs.	Good.
California, Pa.	Yes.	No.	No.	None.	Imperfect.	Imperfect.	Yes.	4 hrs.	Not given.
Baltimore, Md.	Yes.	Yes.	No.	Imperfect.	Imperfect.	Imperfect.	Yes.	3 hrs.	Good.
Washington, D. C.	Yes.	Yes.	Yes.	Imperfect.	Good.	Good.	Yes.	2 hrs.	Moderate.
Cleveland, Ohio	Yes.	Yes.	No.	Drawing.	Imperfect.	Imperfect.	Yes.	2 hrs.	Poor.
Dayton, Ohio	Yes.	No.	No.	Imperfect.	Good.	Good.	Yes.	2 hrs.	Good.
Columbus, Ohio	Yes.	Yes.	Yes.	Good.	Imperfect.	Imperfect.	Yes.	2 hrs.	Poor.
Terre Haute, Ind.	Yes.	No.	No.	None.	Imperfect.	Imperfect.	Yes.	5 hrs.	Poor.
Normal, Ill.	Yes.	Yes.	No.	Imperfect.	Imperfect.	None.	Yes.	5 hrs.	Good.

Oshkosh, Wis.	Yes.	Yes.	No.	Imperfect.	Imperfect.	None.	Yes.	2½ hrs.	Poor.
Winona, Minn.	Yes.	Yes.	Yes.	Imperfect.	Good.	Good.	Yes.	3 hrs.	Poor.
Mankato, Minn.	No.	No.	No.	None.	Imperfect.	Imperfect.	Yes.	4 hrs.	Poor.
St. Cloud, Minn.	Yes.	Yes.	No.	None.	Imperfect.	Imperfect.	Yes.	5 hrs.	Poor.
Cedar Falls, Iowa	Yes.	Yes.	No.	None.	Imperfect.	None.	Yes.	1½ hrs.	Poor.
St. Louis, Mo.	Yes.	Yes.	Yes.	Good.	Good.	Good.	Yes.	2 hrs.	Moderate.
Kirkville, Mo.	No.	No.	No.	None.	Imperfect.	Imperfect.	Yes.	5 hrs.	Poor.
Warrensburg, Mo.	Yes.	Yes.	No.	None.	Imperfect.	None.	Yes.	3½ hrs.	Poor.
Emporia, Kan.	Yes.	Yes.	Yes.	Imperfect.	Imperfect.	Good.	Yes.	3½ hrs.	Poor.
Tuskegee, Ala.	No.	No.	No.	None.	Imperfect.	Imperfect.	Yes.	Not given.	Poor.
Huntsville, Texas	Yes.	Yes.	No.	None.	Imperfect.	Imperfect.	Yes.	2 to 3 hrs.	Moderate.
San Jose, Cal.	Yes.	No.	No.	None.	Imperfect.	Imperfect.	Yes.	5 hrs.	Poor.

INDEX.

1. Special Teacher, means, Is there one employed?
2. Drawing, a Study in Public Schools, means, The recognition of Drawing in general education as a means for developing and expressing thought, and for its application in adult life.
3. The Study of Form, means, The development of ideas of form from geometric solids and objects from the very beginning of school life as the basis for future instruction.
4. Construction, means, The study of the facts of form of objects, and the science of expressing these facts for constructive purposes.
5. Pictorial, means, The science and art of representing objects as they appear to the eye in outline, light, shade, and color from the objects themselves.
6. Decoration, means, The science and art of designing ornament according to accepted laws.
7. Obligatory, means, Compulsory.
8. Time, means, Amount given per week.
9. Appliances, means, Rooms, objects, and instruments used in Instruction.

The index accompanying the table explains the classification. See also note, page 347.

- From this table, it is seen on the positive side,
That in all but one of the schools Drawing is obligatory, and that thirty-three schools have special teachers ;
That the average time given to Drawing is three hours a week.
That in eleven of these schools Drawing is presented as having a direct educational bearing on the preparation of teachers for their work in the public schools ;
While on the negative side it will be seen,
That the appliances for teaching Drawing are excellent in only one school, good in but twelve ; while in the remaining two-thirds the provisions are very inadequate ;
That only eight make the study of form from solids and objects the basis of instruction ;
That only three present the study of the facts of form adequately, while eighteen do not recognize this branch of the study ;
That only five schools give instructions in the three subjects of Drawing and base the instruction on an elementary study of form ;
That only fourteen give a fair amount of instruction in Pictorial Drawing based on recognized principles, while twenty-four give very imperfect instruction in this subject, and only eleven give special attention to the subject of Design ;
That in most of the schools, the object seems to be to train the students to a certain facility of manual execution, without any comprehension of the essential principles and the requirements for teaching the study in the public schools.

To summarize—in the forty schools reporting, Drawing is obligatory in all but one, while a good amount of time is given to the study, and special teachers are provided in nearly all the schools.

But on the other hand, only one-third of these schools have good appliances for teaching, while in but few is the instruction complete in its bearing upon the proper methods for teaching Drawing in public schools.

Thus while a strong sense of the value of Drawing is apparent in the Normal Schools, it is also evident here as well as in the public schools that the labor of the special teachers and the time of the pupils is largely misdirected. It is one of the strange inconsistencies of the time that while Normal Schools have kept pace with the general progress of public education the educational and practical value of drawing has not received sufficient consideration at the hands of many of the Directors of Normal Schools.

ADVANCED EDUCATION.

Manual Training Schools, Technical Schools, Schools of Design, Colleges, and Universities.

These institutions cover instruction in Agriculture, Architecture, Art, civil, mining, and electrical Engineering, Mechanic Arts, Natural History, and Science. In all the completely arranged courses of these various subjects Drawing is pursued from one to five years.

From the replies and catalogues received from these various institutions, the following facts have been obtained.

All Scientific Schools, Technical Schools, and schools of Agriculture require Drawing as a regular study.

The following table shows the time given to Drawing in the various schools :

SCHOOLS.	TIME GIVEN.
Science.	2 terms to 4 years.
Mechanic Arts.	Through the course.
Technical Schools.	1 to 4 years.
Agriculture.	2 terms to 3 years.
Military Schools.	Through the course.
Architecture.	Through the course.
Schools of Design.	Through the course.

The following table shows the time during which Drawing is pursued in the various courses of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology. This institution has been selected as illustrating most comprehensively the position which Drawing occupies in all advanced instruction of this nature.

INSTITUTE OF TECHNOLOGY, SCHOOL OF INDUSTRIAL SCIENCE.

NINE COURSES.

I. Civil Engineering	Drawing through 4 years.
II. Mechanical "	Drawing through 4 years.
III. Mining "	Drawing 1st year and first half of 2d year, and 4th year.
III. B. Geology and Mining . .	Drawing 1st year and first half of 2d year, and 4th year.
IV. Architecture	Drawing through 4 years.
V. A. Chemistry	Drawing 1st year, last half 3d year.
V. B. and C. Chemistry	Drawing 1st year, last half 3d year.
VI. Metallurgy	Drawing 1st year, first half of 4th year.
VII. Natural History	Drawing first 2 years, last half 4th year.
VII. B. Natural History	Drawing first 2 years.
VIII. A. Physics	Drawing 1st year and first half 2d year.
VIII. B. Electrical Engineering .	Drawing 1st and 2d years, and first half 3d year.
IX. A. General Course	Drawing 1st year.
IX. B. General Course	Drawing 1st year.
IX. C. General Course	Drawing 4 years.

From these two tables the fact comes out strongly that a knowledge of Drawing is considered as fundamental and indispensable in Schools of Science, Technology, Art, and Agriculture. But a careful examination of the provisions for drawing in these various courses of study brings out with equal strength another fact, that is, the almost complete lack of preparation on the part of students entering these institutions; for in all but three instances the instruction begins with the very simplest work that can be given.

Only three institutions place a knowledge of elementary drawing on the list of requirements for entrance. How serious a hindrance this want of a knowledge of drawing is in advanced technical and scientific education will be realized from the testimony which follows.

We give here a quotation from the reply of Professor Hasbrouch, Professor of Mathematics and Graphics in the Rutgers Scientific School, New Jersey, where Drawing is a regular study for four years. He says:

"I am heartily of the opinion that a course of Drawing well taught and properly considered is of more importance in all our schools, particularly in communities devoted to industrial pursuits, than instruction in writing. That is not sentiment; it is conviction."

Mr. Geo. L. Vose, Professor of Civil Engineering in Bowdoin College, says:

"That such a course in Free-hand and Instrumental Drawing as might be well and thoroughly taught in the common schools, without in the least consuming the time from other studies, would save a year in the department of Drawing in any of our technical or engineering courses; and this is not simply a matter of opinion with me, but I know it from an actual comparison in my classes of students who had received such a preliminary training with those who had not."

CONCLUSION.

In looking over the whole field we find the instruction in Normal Schools, uneducational and disconnected, directed mainly toward execution, and with very little consideration of the needs of the public schools.

In the public schools we find that the time given to the study is, to a great extent, wasted, from a lack of proper direction and facilities for teaching.

In advanced education in Art, Science, and Technology, all the work is greatly retarded from a lack of elementary knowledge in Drawing on the part of students..

COURSE OF STUDY FOR PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

In view of the foregoing considerations, the committee submit the following outlines of a course of study in Drawing for public schools. In this course they have endeavored to present the general features of the study in the educational order of development, through primary, grammar, and high schools. Such a course of study is believed to be entirely practical in character, devoting one and a half to two hours per week to the subject under proper supervision, and when schools are supplied with suitable objects for the instruction. Particular attention is invited to the outcome of instruction in the high schools and its bearing upon further scientific, technical, or art instruction.

It is assumed that the period in each grade of schools is four years, that in the primary grade the instruction will be devoted mainly to the development of perception of form; in the grammar grades to the acquisition of the principles which govern the expression of ideas in regard to the Construction, Representation, and Decoration of objects; in the high school grades to a further development of the principles begun in the grammar grades and their technical application in

Machine, building, and architectural construction.

Pictorial representation of objects and natural forms in light and shade and color.

Applied Industrial Design and a study of the history and literature of ornament.

COURSE OF STUDY IN DRAWING FOR NORMAL SCHOOLS.—TRAINED TEACHERS NECESSARY.—SUITABLE OBJECTS FOR INSTRUCTION REQUIRED.

These considerations require that the instruction in the normal schools should be of a twofold character—one part of the course devoted to the practical study of drawing for the purpose of learning the technical principles and methods of work required; and the other part devoted to the industrial and practical bearing of the study and to normal methods of teaching.

(The Course of Study in drawing for public schools and for normal schools, presented by the committee was printed and distributed to the members. It was made the subject of special discussion and with a few modifications in details was adopted by the convention. The Course of Study as adopted will be found appended to this report.)

RECOMMENDATIONS.

In view of the foregoing, the committee submit the following recommendations :

I. **NORMAL SCHOOLS.**—The committee recommend that the instruction in normal schools be thoroughly overhauled, where necessary, and faced about, so as to be in a line with the instruction needed in public schools. That the teachers of drawing in normal schools be thoroughly prepared, not only in drawing, but also as to its educational and practical bearings. Without such preparation, the instruction will tend, as it has in too many instances, to mere matters of manipulative execution without any real normal work. The three great needs of the normal schools in drawing are :

A sound course of study.

Teachers of drawing trained in the educational and practical bearing of the subject.

Suitable objects and appliances for instruction.

II. **PUBLIC SCHOOLS.**—The committee recommend that more serious attention be paid to the character of the instruction in the public schools. There can be no improvement in drawing in the public schools until the instruction is placed under the supervision of trained teachers, and until the schools are better supplied with suitable objects for the instruction. It is clear that teachers cannot teach what they do not understand, or if left without the proper facilities for teaching. Until, therefore, the instruction in the public schools is placed under proper supervision, and until the necessary appliances are provided, we may look for a continuance of misdirected and aimless practice.

The three great needs of the public schools are

1. A sound course of study.
2. Intelligent supervision.
3. Suitable objects for instruction.

(Signed)

JAMES MACALISTER, Supt. of Public Schools, Philadelphia.

JOSEPHINE C. LOCKE, Sec., Supervisor of Drawing, St. Louis.

W. L. GOODNOUGH, Supt. of Drawing, Public Schools, and Director of Art School, Columbus, O.

HERM. HAUSTEIN, Special Teacher, Chicago High Schools.

OTTO FUCHS, Principal Maryland Institute, Baltimore.

MADISON, Wis., July 17, 1884.

The report of the Committee was accepted and adopted by the Convention.

ABSTRACT OF REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON COURSE OF STUDY IN PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

It is the object of the committee, in submitting the following Outlines of a Course of Study in Drawing for the Public Schools, to present the general features of the study in educational order of development, through Primary, Grammar, and High Schools.

Such a course of study is believed to be not only educational in its general character, but also to form a basis for higher technical instruction.

The time required for the course is from one and a half to two hours per week in Primary, Grammar, and High Schools, when under proper supervision. The course is intended to be consecutive and progressive.

COURSE OF STUDY IN DRAWING FOR PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

Trained supervision necessary. Suitable objects for instruction required.

PRIMARY COURSE—4 YEARS.

PERCEPTION OF FORM THE BASIS.

Form Lessons to be given from geometric solids and objects; the same not only to be seen, but also to be examined and made.

Development of the creative faculties. See details under Practical Work in Normal Schools.

Pupils trained to correct position of body, hand and pencil; freedom of movement in, drawing straight and curved lines.

Drawing on slate, blackboard, and paper, from objects, copies, dictation, and memory.

Drawing of facts of simple solids, and geometric forms of surfaces; pictorial views of objects in two dimensions; arrangements of single forms or units ornamentally.

GRAMMAR COURSE—4 YEARS.

ACQUISITION OF PRINCIPLES THE OBJECT.

The development of the instruction of the Primary Grade in the subjects of Construction, Representation, and Decoration.

I. CONSTRUCTION.

Relates to the delineation of geometric and simple objects by two or more views, as top, front, end view, etc.; sections, developments, simple working drawings of common objects in wood, metal, or any material. Working to scale and geometric problems with instruments. Execution both free-hand and instrumental.

II. REPRESENTATION.

Relates to pictorial rendering of objects in outline, such as cylindrical, conical, and rectangular solids, and familiar objects placed on a level with, above, and below the eye; also at different angles and at different inclinations, singly and in groups.

Instruction in this subject mainly from objects. Execution entirely free-hand.

III. DECORATION.

Relates to symmetry and proportion in design; arrangement of units along a line, as borders; about a centre, as rosettes; in all directions, as surface decoration.

Geometric design; conventionalization in design; Historic forms in design. Original arrangements illustrating principles. Execution both free-hand and with instruments.

HIGH SCHOOL COURSE—4 YEARS.

TECHNICAL APPLICATION OF PRINCIPLES THE OBJECT.

This course may be elective as to subjects, tending either in the direction of Construction, Representation, or Decoration.

CONSTRUCTION.

Problems in Advanced Geometry, Problems in Orthographic Projection. Working Drawings. Elements of Building and Machine Construction.

REPRESENTATION.

Perspective theory and practice with instruments. Objects and Natural Forms in Light and Shade and Color. Sketching from nature.

DECORATION.

Study of the Historic Styles of Ornament from the Flat and the Round Modelling in clay. Analysis of Plant Forms from Nature and Conventionalization of the same. Applied Designs in Pencil, Ink, and Color or any other medium.

NORMAL SCHOOLS.

TRAINED TEACHERS NECESSARY. SUITABLE OBJECTS FOR INSTRUCTION REQUIRED.

I—PRACTICAL WORK.

1. Elementary ideas of the facts of geometric forms developed by handling the objects, making them of clay, card-board, etc., and deriving from them the plane geometric figures.
2. Proper position of the pencil and body, and cultivation of free movement, for slate, paper, or blackboard work.
3. Different elementary methods of presentation.
 - (a) From objects.
 - (b) From blackboard.
 - (c) From copies.
 - (d) From dictation.
 - (e) Memory drawing.
 - (f) Invention or original arrangement.
4. Construction.
 - (a) Making the simple geometric plane figures and solids of paper or any material.
 - (b) Top, front, or end views, sections, developments, and details of geometric solids and of common objects.
 - (c) Working drawings of common objects, furniture, etc.
 - ** (d) Architectural drawing.
 - ** (e) Machine drawing.

5. Representation.

- *(a) Placing sticks to make geometric forms.
- *(b) Cutting geometric forms from paper.
- (c) Drawing objects showing but two dimensions.
- (d) Drawing singly, objects in three dimensions; cylindrical, conical, rectangular, etc.
- (e) Groups of objects in outline, with practice in composition.
- ** (f) Perspective with instruments.
- (g) Leaves or plants from nature in outline.
- ** (h) Models in light and shade.
- ** (i) Casts in light and shade.
- ** (j) Flowers or plants from nature in color or pencil.

6. Decoration.

- *(a) Simple arrangement with sticks.
- (b) Original combinations of units.
- (d) Designs to fill geometric forms, foliage used.
- *(e) Historic ornament, ancient mediæval, and modern styles.
- (f) Botanic analysis for design.

- * (g) Applied design in any medium, for textile fabrics, floor and wall coverings, pottery, wood, metal or stone work, etc.

NOTE.

Harmony of Color and Historic Ornament may be taught largely by means of lectures properly illustrated. If, for any reason, it is impossible to take all of the above course, those subjects marked with * may be condensed or treated briefly. Those marked ** may be touched upon briefly or omitted entirely.

NORMAL INSTRUCTION.

II—THEORETICAL WORK.

To be given mainly by talks and lectures:

1. Development of ideas concerning the educational use of drawing in the three stages of mental growth, *perception, reception, expression*. Also of its practical value in the industrial world.
2. How to develop ideas of form from objects.
3. Value and purpose of the different modes of presentation.
4. Materials necessary in drawing, when and how used, slates, paper, blackboard, clay, pencil eraser, rule, compass, triangle, T-square, drawing board.
5. Three parallel lines of instruction—Representation, Construction, Decoration—necessary in a fully developed course as considered from an educational and practical standpoint.
6. Order of presentation:
 - 1st. Through the senses.
 - 2d. Through formulated principles.
 - 3d. Through technical application.

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7. Definitions of each:

- (a) *Construction*—Teaching the facts as to dimensions and real shape of objects, and how to make working drawings for the construction of things.
 - (b) *Representation*—Teaching how to render objects and things pictorially, or as they appear.
 - (c) *Decoration*—Teaching the principles of design, and how to decorate objects.
8. Lectures on the practical application of—
- (a) *Construction*—Illustrated by actual working drawings from the factory or shop and by objects or portions of them.
 - (b) *Representation*—Illustrated by good examples in original pictures or reproductions, and by the draughtsman's preparatory sketches for a piece of cabinet work or other structure.
 - (c) *Decoration*—Illustrated by pottery forms, wall papers, textiles, etc.
9. Model lessons given by the teacher in the different subjects illustrating the manner of presentation.
 10. Model lessons given by the pupils subject to the criticism of the teacher.
 11. How to mark or grade examinations in Drawing and practice in marking them.
 12. How to prepare, pass, collect, and take care of drawing materials.
 13. How to handle classes in Drawing in the various subjects and in the various grades.
 14. Distribution of the course of study in Drawing throughout the several grades of schools.
 15. Necessary appliances for teaching Drawing in the various grades.

NOTE.

The instruction in theory should accompany the practice, being given in connection with the same.







THE
NATIONAL COUNCIL OF EDUCATION.

PROCEEDINGS OF FOURTH ANNUAL MEETING,

HELD IN MADISON, WIS., JULY, 1884.

WITH

OFFICERS, MEMBERS, AND COMMITTEES FOR 1884-85.

AND THE

CONSTITUTION.

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SECRETARY'S MINUTES.

MADISON, JULY 10, 1884.

The National Council of Education met, pursuant to the call of the Executive Committee, at 8 o'clock P. M., in the Senate Chamber at the Capitol. President E. E. White occupied the chair, and Messrs. Andrews, Bicknell, Brown, Calkins, Chapin, Coy, Dunton, Gove, Hagar, Hoose, Jones, Moss, Payne, Peaslee, Pickard, Rickoff, Tarbell, Sheldon, Smart, Thompson, and White were present.

Aaron Gove, of Colorado, was elected Secretary *pro tem*. Prayer was offered by Rev. Lemuel Moss, of Indiana.

President White delivered a brief introductory address.

Mr. Hoose then read the report of the committee on Hygiene upon the subject "Recess or no Recess." The report was discussed, and final action upon the report was postponed till the next meeting.

Council adjourned till 9 o'clock A. M., July 9.

SECOND DAY.

MORNING SESSION.

SENATE CHAMBER, FRIDAY, JULY 11, 1884.

The Council met at 9 A.M., President White in the chair. Prayer was offered by Mr. E. T. Tappan, of Ohio. The chair was instructed to procure some one to report the discussions of the reports of committees, the reports to be read for approval and amendment at the following morning session.

The chair appointed Mr. George P. Brown, of Indiana, reporter of the next discussion.

On motion of Mr. Coy the report of the committee on Hygiene was recommitted.

Mr. Dickinson presented the report of the committee on Oral Teaching, which was vigorously discussed the remainder of the session. Council adjourned to meet at 2 : 30 P. M.

Messrs. Andrews, Bicknell, Boyden, Brown, Chapin, Coy, Dickinson, Dunton, Folwell, Gove, Hagar, Hancock, Harris, Hoose, Jones, Moss, Mowry, Payne, Peaslee, Pickard, Rickoff, Rounds, Tarbell, Sheldon, Thompson, and White were present.

AFTERNOON SESSION.

The Council met according to adjournment, and the discussion of the report by Mr. Dickinson was continued for one hour, when on motion of Mr. Harris the following resolution was passed :

Resolved, That the paper of Mr. Dickinson, together with the strictures made upon it in this debate, if the same are presented in writing to the secretary of the Council, be printed in the proceedings of this meeting.

Mr. Gove, of the committee on City School Systems, then read a paper on the duties of City Superintendents, and Mr. Rickoff, of the same committee, read a paper upon the mode of election, the tenure of office, and the grades of City Superintendents.

The chair appointed Mr. Tarbell, of Indiana, reporter of the discussions of these two papers.

There were present at this session, Messrs. Andrews, Bicknell, Boyden, Brown, Calkins, Chapin, Coy, Dickinson, Dunton, Folwell, Gove, Hancock, Harris, Hoose, Moss, Mowry, Payne, Peaslee, Pickard, Rickoff, Rounds, Tarbell, Sheldon, C. O. Thompson, and White. Council adjourned to 8 o'clock P. M.

EVENING SESSION.

Council met according to adjournment, the President in the chair. There were present Messrs. Andrews, Boyden, Brown, Calkins, Chapin, Coy, Dunton, Gove, Hancock, Hoose, Jones, Moss, Mowry, Peaslee, Pickard, Rickoff, Rounds, Sheldon, Soldan, and White. The session was spent in the discussion of Mr. Rickoff's papers.

Adjourned to 9 A. M., July 12.

THIRD DAY.

MORNING SESSION.

SENATE CHAMBER, SATURDAY, JULY 12, 1884.

Council met at 9 o'clock, President White in the chair. Present: Messrs. Andrews, Bicknell, Boyden, Brown, Chapin, Coy, Dibble, Dunton, Gove, Hancock, Hoose, Moss, Mowry, Peaslee, Pickard, Rickoff, Rounds, Sheldon, Soldan, Tarbell, C. O. Thompson, and White.

Prayer was offered by President Chapin, of Beloit College.

The report of the discussions on Friday was read by Mr. Brown.

Voted, That the report be accepted with permission to modify its paragraphs as subsequent information may make necessary.

Voted, That all reports of committees be printed with the proceedings of the Council accompanied with a statement of the action of the Council in disposing of the report.

Voted, on motion of Mr. Bicknell, That a committee of three on the Formation of an International Council be appointed by the chair.

Messrs. T. W. Bicknell, F. L. Soldan, and C. O. Thompson were appointed as this committee.

The chair appointed as committee on the Nomination of Officers, Messrs. Tarbell, Rounds, Hancock, Gove, and Folwell; and as committee on Nomination of Members of the Council, Messrs. Mowry, Pickard, Brown, Hoose, and Peaslee.

The remainder of the session was spent in the discussion of the papers of Messrs. Rickoff and Gove.

Voted, To accept the invitation of Dr. Smart to inspect the various exhibits of the Exposition at 2 o'clock P. M.

The Council then adjourned to 9 A. M., July 14.

FOURTH DAY.

MORNING SESSION.

SENATE CHAMBER, MONDAY, JULY 14, 1884.

Council met at 9 : 30 A. M., President White in the chair. Prayer was offered by Rev. L. Moss, of Indiana. Present: Messrs. Andrews, Bicknell, Boyden, Brown, Calkins, Chapin, Coy, Dibble, Dunton, Folwell, Gove, Hagar, Hancock, Hall, Harris, Hewett, Hoose, Jones, Moss, Mowry, Orr, Payne, Peaslee, Pickard, Rickoff, Rounds, Soldan, Sheldon, Stevenson, Tarbell, C. O. Thompson, and White.

The minutes of the Council were read by the secretary. The report of the discussion of the papers of Messrs. Rickoff and Gove was read by Mr. Tarbell.

Voted, That this report be printed with corrections as desired by the speakers.

Mr. Harris, chairman of the committee on Pedagogics, read two papers upon the subject, "Is there a Science of Pedagogics?" the first written by Mr. Soldan, the second by Mr. Harris.

The chair appointed Mr. Brown, of Indiana, reporter of the discussions on these papers.

The paper of Mr. Soldan was discussed during the remainder of the morning session.

Council adjourned to 2 : 30 P. M.

AFTERNOON SESSION.

Council met according to adjournment. Present, same members as in morning session. Mr. Moss, chairman of a joint committee, read a report upon "Preparation for College." The report was thoroughly discussed. Mr. C. O. Thompson, the appointed reporter of the discussion, was requested by vote of the Council to write his remarks in the discussion for the printed report.

The chair appointed as committee on the Publication of the Proceedings, Messrs. Harris, Hewett, and Stevenson.

The committee on Nomination reported the following list of officers, who were elected.

For President — Emerson E. White, of Ohio.

For Vice-President — Daniel B. Hagar, of Massachusetts.

For Secretary — George P. Brown, of Indiana.

For Executive Committee — The President, Vice-President, and Secretary; and J. L. Pickard, of Iowa; Larkin Dunton, of Boston; F. L. Soldan, of St. Louis; V. C. Dibble, of South Carolina.

Voted, That the report of the committee on Preparation for College be accepted and printed.

Council adjourned to meet in the Baptist church at 9 A. M., July 15, 1884.

FIFTH DAY.

MORNING SESSION.

BAPTIST CHURCH, MADISON, JULY 15, 1884.

Council met at 9 A. M., President White in the chair. Prayer was offered by President J. L. Pickard, of Iowa State University. Present: Andrews, Bicknell, Boyden, Brown, Calkins, Chapin, Coy, Dibble, Dunton, Folwell, Gove, Hagar, Hall, Hancock, Harris, Hewett, Hoose, Jones, Moss, Mowry, Orr, Payne, Peaslee, Pickard, Rickoff, Rounds, Sheldon, Soldan, Stevenson, Tarbell, C. O. Thompson, Curry, Northrop, Tappan, S. R. Thompson, and White.

Minutes of the previous day were read by the secretary.

Mr. C. O. Thompson read his report of the discussion of the report of the committee on Preparation for College.

Voted, That this report be printed.

Mr. G. P. Brown read his report of the discussion of Mr. Soldan's paper.

- Voted, That this report be printed.

After a spicy discussion of the paper of Mr. Harris on Pedagogics it was

Voted, That the paper and the discussion of it be printed.

Mr. G. Stanley Hall made orally a preliminary report upon the Study of Children.

Voted, That Mr. Harris be requested to present his report on the same subject in print.

Adjourned to 3 P. M. for business session.

AFTERNOON SESSION.

PARLOR OF BAPTIST CHURCH, MADISON, JULY 15, 1884.

The Council met at 3 P. M., President White in the chair. Present: Messrs. Andrews, Boyden, Chapin, Coy, Dibble, Dunton, Folwell, Gove, Hancock, Harris, Hewett, Hoose, Jones, Moss, Mowry, Orr, Payne, Phelps, Pickard, Rickoff, Rounds, Sheldon, Singer, Soldan, Tappan, Tarbell, C. O. Thompson, S. R. Thompson, and White.

VOTED, That the word *eleven* in the second sentence of Article 4 of the Constitution be omitted and the word *twelve* be inserted in its place.

VOTED, That Article 4 of the Constitution be further amended so that the names of the twelve committees of the Council shall be :

1. Committee on State School Systems.
2. Committee on City School Systems.
3. Committee on Higher Education.
4. Committee on Secondary Education.
5. Committee on Elementary Education.
6. Committee on Normal Education.
7. Committee on Technological Education.
8. Committee on Pedagogics.
9. Committee on Education of Girls.
10. Committee on Hygiene in Education.
11. Committee on Educational Literature.
12. Committee on Educational Statistics.

VOTED, That Article 4 of Constitution be further amended so as to read: The first nine committees shall each have five members, the last three committees shall each have three members.

Voted, That the special committees be discontinued and their duties be assigned to the standing committees.

Voted, That the printing of the proceedings of the Council be left to the President with full powers.

Voted, That Mr. Philbrick be continued as chairman of the Committee on Educational Literature.

Voted, To approve the bills of the President.

The committee on Nomination of Members reported through Mr. Mowry, chairman, the names of D. B. Hagar, Salem, Mass.; H. S. Tarbell, Indianapolis, Ind.; J. C. Greenough, Amherst, Mass.; E. W. Coy, Cincinnati, O., for re-election. These gentlemen were re-elected by the Council. Their terms expire in 1890.

The committee on Nomination of Members also reported as follows: E. T. Tappan (Ohio), successor to J. D. Philbrick (Mass.), his term expiring in 1885; W. H. Barringer (N. J.), S. R. Thompson (Neb.), successors to M. H. Buckham (Vt.), and J. H. MacAlister (Pa.), their terms expiring in 1886; S. H. Peabody (Ill.), E. J. James (Pa.), successors to D. C. Gilman (Md.) and John Swett (Cal.), their terms expiring in 1877; T. B. Stockwell (R. I.), successor to A. P. Marble (Mass.), his term expiring in 1888; and, as honorary members, J. D. Philbrick (Mass.), M. H. Buckham (Vt.), D. C. Gilman (Md.), A. P. Marble (Mass.), John Swett (Cal.), J. H. MacAlister (Pa.). The report was adopted.

The Council then adjourned *sine die*.

ALBERT G. BOYDEN, *Secretary*.

REPORTS OF COMMITTEES AND DISCUSSIONS.

I. REPORT OF COMMITTEE ON HYGIENE IN EDUCATION.

RECESS OR NO RECESS.

The practice of dispensing with recess during the daily sessions of school is increasing. Its advocates claim— (a) It conserves health by preventing exposure. (b) It tends to refinement by removing the opportunities for rude and boisterous play. (c) It takes away the opportunity for association with the vicious and the consequent corruption of morals. (d) It relieves teachers of a disagreeable duty and lightens their labors.

Considering these claims in their order we observe,— (a) Exposure to the inclemency of the weather—to rain, snow, wind, severe heat, or cold—is occasional and less than that which is incurred in going to and from school, and even this is, in the economy of nature, often invigorating. On the other hand there is an exposure constant and always harmful—to the poison of a vitiated atmosphere, for “the greatest sanitary want everywhere is ventilation;” to the inactivity of the yet immature organs of excretion (a danger increased in intensity by the sedentary habit of the school-room which causes a feverish condition of the abdominal and pelvic cavities of the body) : to an abnormal growth induced by mismanagement during youth which means disease and intense suffering during adult life.

It must be remembered that two-thirds of the children of our public schools are yet under twelve years of age. The entrance into school is often without due preparation for the confinement of the session. Parents have been neglectful. Teachers must supplement this lack of instruction at home in regard to the importance of regular attention to the “wants of nature.” The recess suggests the duty. Teachers may enforce it.

As is well suggested by a writer in *Popular Science Monthly* for November, 1883, “In-door life has already too strong attractions. Out-of-door exercise should be sought with avidity by every child.” Deprivation of sunlight is a serious matter. Involuntary muscles need exercise, and a series of experiments show that out-of-door exercise quickens the pulsations by 13.4 per minute—while in-door exercise gives only an increase of 3 per minute, and quiet sitting will bring them 3.8 below normal.

The tendency among Americans is to infirmity of those portions of the system that are situated in and about the pelvic cavity of the trunk. These are the parts that are most intimately concerned in the matter of recess. No mistake should be made here in the school management. Pupils should be placed in the way of opportunities so that they need not suffer danger because of embarrassments arising from the necessities of asking for opportunities.

Dr. Bell in *Sanitarian* for December, 1875, uses these effective words :

"If a child of originally healthy constitution be subjected for a sufficient length of time to an atmosphere surcharged with carbonic acid, if it be deprived of light, if it be restrained in physical exercise necessary for the development of its organs, if the 'wants of nature' be neglected, if above all the want of supervision, which renders these conditions common to school-rooms, be extended to a negligence of the virtues of children, what else can we expect but a generation of dwarfs—a stunted progeny?"

Dr. W. S. Robertson, President of the State Board of Health of Iowa, writes in response to my request for an opinion :

"Our school system is much at fault as regards primary scholars. Too long hours, too close confinement, too many studies, imperfect distribution of light and an almost entire absence of ventilation; * * Little children should not be kept in school more than an hour at a time."

No better authority can be cited than Dr. J. S. Jewell of Chicago and his entire letter is given, for he stands among the first of his profession especially in his knowledge of nervous diseases.

MY DEAR SIR—Your courteous note of inquiry in relation to the probable effects on the health of pupils by the abolition of recesses and confinement of children for two or two and a half hours at a session has been received. The subject is one to which I have given special attention and upon which I am now preparing matter for publication. I have no doubt but that the proposed change of abolishing recesses and of lengthening hours of confinement, is one every way to be deprecated from the standpoint of the bodily health of the pupils. I am prepared to make this clear to any one I think. But I cannot discuss the subject within the limits of a note such as you have requested. I am sorry the circumstances of the case do not permit me to state the grounds of my opinion fully. But my opinion as expressed has not been hastily adopted and I have no fear it will be controverted successfully. I am glad to learn you are discussing this important subject. Thanking you for your courtesy I beg to subscribe myself
Most sincerely yours,
J. S. JEWELL.

Dr. D. W. Middleton, Prof. of Physiology in University of Iowa, writes :

"My ideas have changed much since my own children have begun attending the public schools, and I find that however much I am inclined to democracy I fear the schools present it in too large doses for such young stomachs. The recess is an opportunity for the dose of democracy—also of fresh air. Of the two evils I guess the democracy is the least, so fancy the recess should stand. My idea would be something like this—until our school buildings are perfect in the matter of providing pure air, two or two and a half hours is too long to expose little children to the noxious substances found in breathed-over air for the two reasons that their demands for oxygen are immense compared with the adult standard, and their capacities for absorption of all noxious substances are correspondingly large."

Dr. J. Berrien Lindsley, of Nashville, Tenn., has given this subject much thought, and has made an admirable compilation of authorities in a report of 1879 of Nashville Board of Health.

Commissioner Eaton has twice called up the matter in his excellent reports for 1873 and 1875.

In neither of these last named reports is the subject of recesses specially discussed, but the vital importance of abundant fresh air is forcibly presented and the fact cited of universal neglect of ventilation of school-rooms. Occasional exposure to inclement weather is far less to be

dreaded in the pure air, than is the constant exposure in poorly ventilated school-rooms.

If doors and windows be thrown open during in-door exercises, exposure is greater than when children go out of doors properly protected by their wrappings, which they do not think of putting on in-doors, and in addition they lose the vivifying effect of abundant sunlight and pure air. Even with windows and doors open, the air of the school-room is not changed while the little laboratories of carbonic acid remain in quickened activity within the room.

(b) What is called rude and boisterous play on the school-grounds is only rehearsals of the exercises practised mornings, evenings, and Saturdays on other grounds, with the advantage on the side of school recesses in the teacher's supervision. *Physical exercises* demand the conscious expenditure of volitional energy, in that they are acts defined by precise limitations; they are never spontaneous activities; they are characterized by purpose; this purpose weights down the physical act with drafts that tend to exhaust physical and volitional strength. *Athletics*, in which championship is the motive, train the individual to perform successfully his part in an organized contest where the individual is subordinated to the organization. These exercises develop only those portions of the physical system that are called into exercise by the nature of the game, and by the part which the individual has to sustain during its continuance.

Gymnastics are exercises in squads or groups; their effectiveness depends upon numbers; they subordinate the individual to the group; they do not propose the harmonious development of the individual so much as the power of the group; these two cultivate only special organs and powers.

Calisthenics propose rythmical movement; they subordinate the individual to the class; they cultivate the body of each without reference to condition or special needs.

Each class of physical exercises has its own characteristic effect upon the mind. Athletics develop perseverance, courage, and power to adapt one's self to emergencies, as seen in Greece, Rome, and England. Gymnastics develop endurance, faith in one's own powers, faith in the powers of groups, as witnessed in Germany. Calisthenics as practised in Sweden and France develop taste in the grace of movement but not the sterner and more robust traits of character. America has adopted the three without attaining prestige in any. Educators may raise with great force the question whether any of these classes of exercises can be substituted in school-rooms for those spontaneous exercises of the school-yard. This question becomes more important when we reflect that for the school-room only one of the three classes named is practicable, and that one the

least fitted to restore energy of pupils; it is a source of expenditure of volitional power and does not cultivate equally with play mental traits and aptitudes of courage, of ready adaptation to emergencies, or of self-reliance. Until we have some well devised system of exercises practised under the direction of a physician who prescribes the kind and degree of exercise suited to each person as is in vogue in the Hemenway Gymnasium at Harvard, also in Lehigh and in Boston Universities, educators may well hesitate to substitute the restraints of Calisthenics for the freedom and spontaneity of life on the play-ground.

(c) Youthful corruption is far more likely to result from personal influence in secret. Moral evils spread among pupils by written and printed documents, or by conversation; both forms of evil covet seclusion. Pupils can spread moral contamination with no great effect during school hours when teachers supervise in person the play-grounds; but permit two or three at a time to pass from under the eye of their teacher and their fellows, and needed restraints are removed. It is true that to the play-ground will be traced outbursts of passion, differences of opinion, accidents, and the strong influences of public opinion of the pupils. All these forces are positive among children; they are the primitive embryonic forms of that society in which adult life moves. A child that would become a man in society must be inured by practice and experience to the forces into which his adult life will throw him. The patience, forbearance, courtesy, and good nature which characterized the immense throngs at the Centennial in 1876, will ever stand as a high tribute to the training which the children in America receive in their association in schools and upon the play-ground.

(d) Teachers are not entitled to relief at the expense of their pupils; they are not endowed by nature or by law with the sovereign right of eminent domain, the right to appropriate any territory, physical, mental, or moral at their own good pleasure; they must serve such purposes as society assigns to them. Ease and hardship are not weighty points in the problem when they are set over against the character of the product demanded. If the no-recess plan ensures as good a product as the recess plan does, the teacher is entitled to relief—otherwise not.

For reasons given above your committee is fully convinced that neither the physical, nor the moral well-being of the child is subserved by the policy of longer and continued sessions without an out-door recess.

[The above report was recommitted, and subsequently ordered printed. The object of recommitting the report, as stated in the discussion, was to secure a fuller investigation of the practical workings of the no-recess plan in cities where it has been adopted. The discussion of the report was not reported.]

II. REPORT OF COMMITTEE ON ELEMENTARY EDUCATION ON ORAL TEACHING.*

The committee have prepared the following report on Oral Teaching :

1st. Some terms will be defined, that the report may be understood in the same sense by all who are to judge of its merits and to decide upon its acceptance.

The terms whose significance it is necessary to determine are Education, Instruction, Teaching, Course of Studies, and Text-book.

EDUCATION.

Education is a state of the mind in which it has the ability and inclination to think so as to discover the truth ; to feel the pleasure or pain which a knowledge of the truth is adapted to occasion, and to choose the best ends.

This definition makes Education to be a state of the mind, and directs our attention to the mind itself for those marks by which Education may be distinguished from any other object of thought.

INSTRUCTION.

As the mind is changed from one state to any other state by its own activity, the state called Education must be the product of the exertion of mental power. But as thinking produces knowledge, and knowledge in turn occasions activity, both may be taken together as the cause of education.

This cause builds the mind up into the states it comes to possess and may be named Instruction.

Instruction may then be defined as that mental activity and knowledge which produce education.

If instruction is taken in this sense, every man is his own instructor.

TEACHING.

To present an object or subject of thought to the learner, is to make them hold such relations to his mind as to lead it to think of them.

Presenting is an act performed by a teacher, and is done for the purpose of directing the mind of the learner to the acquisition of knowledge and to the development of mental power.

*The chairman, before reading this report, expressed regret that he had not had an opportunity to submit it to the other members of the committee.

Such an act is teaching, and consists in presenting objects and subjects of thought to the learner's mind as occasions for knowledge and mental development.

Taken in this sense, it is the work of the teacher to establish the conditions necessary for the pupil to help himself to what he is to know and to do.

COURSE OF STUDIES.

Study is a prolonged thinking of any object of knowledge. A study is any such object itself. The one is an act of the mind, the other is the object of action.

A course of studies is a collection and systematic arrangement of objects of study. By systematic arrangement of studies is meant, such an order of them as the developing faculties of the child's mind and the relations of different branches of knowledge to one another demand.

TEXT-BOOKS.

A book containing an explanation and statement of rules and principles of a science may be properly called a Text-book.

Arithmetics, grammars, geographies, as usually constructed, are text-books, in distinction from books of problems to be solved, or of sentences to be translated and analyzed, or of topics to simply direct the pupil in his study. Such books contain the very objects of study, and not an explanation of the ideas some author may have of these objects.

From the definitions given it will become evident that education is the end to be pursued in all school exercises; that instruction is the cause of education; that teaching is the occasion of instruction, while a course of studies with its objects is the means to be used in teaching. A text-book, if used as a text-book, usually takes the place of the object or subject of study.

The definition of teaching already given makes it to consist in presenting things to be thought of and known. If the act includes the use of such *words* by the teacher as are necessary to guide the learner in thinking, the method employed may be designated by the name of Oral Teaching.

If we analyze the oral method of teaching, there will appear in it two elements which should attract our attention.

1st. It presents to the learner whatever he is expected to study. 2d. It directs his study by the proper use of all necessary means, but it does not relieve him from any labor necessary to the acquisition of knowledge, or to a full training of his powers. The kinds of knowledge to be gained are a knowledge of material things and of their qualities, thought of apart from the things themselves; of language and of mental states.

The kinds of mental power to be strengthened and perfected by exercise are the power to observe ; to reproduce past mental states ; to generalize and to reason.

The acquisition of knowledge is conditioned on the presence to the mind of appropriate objects, on the existence of appropriate elementary knowledge, and on the right state of the mental faculties.

It must not be forgotten that one mind cannot acquire knowledge for another, nor can the activity of one mind produce an increase of power in another.

All mental acquisitions, and all mental changes, are results, which every mind must produce for itself. Oral teaching taken in the sense established by definition, presents the true occasions for these results.

As a method of teaching it is perfectly adapted to the accomplishment of the purposes for which the act of teaching should be performed. This will be seen by comparing the method with the ends to be sought.

The successful application of oral teaching requires, on the part of the teacher, a large amount of positive knowledge, and such skill as positive knowledge and a true practice alone can give. The knowledge must be of things to be known, and of minds that are to know them. The skill must consist of a facility in directing the activity of the learner's mind to the acquisition of knowledge and development. One mark of true oral teaching is found in this, that it always directs the mind of the pupil, in the various stages of its development, to the acquisition of that kind of knowledge which it is able to comprehend.

The ability to comprehend a kind of knowledge depends upon two things. 1st, upon the possession of the knowledge which may be considered elementary to that which at any time may present itself for comprehension. 2d, upon the degree of development which the mind has attained.

Both these things should be carefully considered in every stage of the student's progress.

A proper attention to these two conditions of mental progress, will mark out the true order of studies, and the true order of study.

It will fill the learner's mind with elementary knowledge before scientific knowledge is attempted. It will call into exercise the powers of observation, before a scientific generalization and classification are required.

As oral teaching simply directs the pupil to the means by which he may help himself, it has a direct tendency to cultivate in him a spirit of independence and the power of self-control.

Objections to oral teaching have been made by writers on educational topics.

It is said by them that such teaching relieves the pupil from all independent work ; that it fails to prepare him to use books in his pursuit of knowledge ; that it adds an intolerable burden to the teacher's labor,

and that the teachers of the country do not know enough, nor do they have skill enough to teach as oral teaching, from its definition, requires. These criticisms are old and persistent, and they are generally made by those who have no very definite idea of what oral teaching is.

Instead of relieving the pupil from work, it requires him to think his own thoughts and perform his own acts.

The oral teacher is to do nothing but present the objects and subjects of knowledge and direct the learner in his study.

Oral objective teaching should always precede the use of books. That one may make an intelligent use of books, he must first know the things which the books describe. One of the most common sources of human error is found in the fact, that words are so often taken for things. Books may take the place of the teacher sometimes, but they should never take the place of the objects of study.

The reason we cannot use some books is due to our ignorance of the objects which the books describe.

Books, like a living teacher, should call our attention to the true objects of knowledge.

To say that the practice of oral teaching is an added burden to ordinary school work, is to say that true teaching is more laborious than no teaching; for assigning lessons to be committed to memory from books, is not teaching according to a right use of that term.

It must be admitted that the teachers of the country are not all prepared to stand before their classes, and lead them to master for themselves their topics, and in such a way as to produce a right development of the faculties. To accomplish these results requires experience and a knowledge of the philosophy of teaching. But experience and philosophy are necessary to good teaching—and the teachers who would teach in this age should possess both in a rich abundance.

The elementary schools of the future will be supplied with those things which the pupils are to know. The elementary teaching will bring these pupils into direct contact with the objects of their thoughts.

The scientific schools will receive into their classes those whose minds are well stored with elementary knowledge, and well trained to observe—scientific teaching will direct them to general knowledge—and to the power of self-control.

JOHN W. DICKINSON, *Chairman.*

DISCUSSION OF MR. DICKINSON'S PAPER.

[Reported by GEORGE P. BROWN.]

The definitions of the terms employed in the report were first made the subject of inquiry.

MR. THOMPSON, of Nebraska, suggested that the report used instruction in an unusual sense. It would make the learner the instructor.

MR. DICKINSON considered this the primary signification of the word and used it in its literal sense.

MR. PICKARD, of Iowa, suggested that instruction and education were each words of at least two meanings. They might be named either the process or the product of the mind's activity.

MR. TAPPAN, of Ohio, asked for the meaning of the word presentation in the report. It seemed to him, that teaching was something more than the presentation of objects to the mind as occasions for knowledge and mental development. The teacher had also to test the presence of proper conceptions in the mind of the child and correct his misconceptions.

MR. HANCOCK of Ohio, thought that the report represented the teacher as a too passive agent.

MR. DICKINSON explained that the word presentation was used in a sense broad enough to include all of those processes that were needful to a correct and complete apprehension of the object.

MR. THOMPSON, of Indiana, asked if by the committee's definition of teaching it was not allowable to consider the book the teacher after the learner had learned to read? Whether in that case, the book if properly constructed did not take the place of the teacher.

MR. DICKINSON admitted that the book might be the teacher, but that the active presence of the living teacher was necessary to any proper teaching of the young. It was only through oral teaching as the committee had defined it that the teacher could best make himself unnecessary to the pupils.

MR. HARRIS, of Massachusetts, thought that there was much juggling with the word object. Objects are either external or internal, objective or subjective. The latter class are presented through the medium of the word, and in books. If the committee made its term "oral" teaching to include that received from books there could be no serious disagreement. Each individual must gain the largest part of the knowledge he acquires from books. These contain the knowledge of all who have preceded him.

MR. DICKINSON said that oral teaching implied the presence of the object before the mind. That object may be some material thing, or it may be the soul itself in some state of activity. But the mind should be allowed at first to deal with the thing itself and not be required to use language as the original source of ideas.

MR. HOOSE, of New York, asked the following questions of the committee:

1. There are two classes of objects, material and psychical. How, by the report, can I teach an idea of a *contrast*, a *will*, and the like?
2. Are written questions and statements oral teaching, as well as oral questions and statements?
3. Does the study of literature give knowledge?
4. Is it not important that the pupil be able to get knowledge from books?

MR. DICKINSON said that oral teaching was presenting the objects to the mind in such a way as to lead the mind to think of them. These objects were either subjective or objective. The material object must be brought before the senses. This was the only proper method of leading the child to acquire a proper knowledge of it. The subject object must be brought before consciousness. The mind must be stimulated to produce these subject objects for its own contemplation by the language of a teacher. But having produced them they were to be made objects of study the same as in the case of material objects.

MR. PAYNE, of Michigan, congratulated the Council on the growing interest among teachers in the consideration of fundamental ideas and principles of teaching. He thought that the mind does not deal with the real objects, but with its conceptions. How are these conceptions brought into the presence chamber of the soul? Either by the object or the word, oral or written. It is impossible that in every case of knowing the actual object shall be the occasion of the conception. Language must be

employed to stimulate this activity that we call knowledge. It was immaterial whether the language be oral or printed, provided each form of symbol is equally familiar. The essential thing is that the symbol should stimulate the proper conception. But since the knowledge of the race is embalmed in books, the child must be taught to gain knowledge from books. This is the only source of some of our most valuable knowledge, as History.

MR. DICKINSON thought that language can not be an original source of knowledge. It is only the sign: the thing signified must be first known before the sign of the thing can have any significance. The thing must be first known by being presented.

PRESIDENT WHITE, of Ohio, thought that the paper was consistent and invulnerable within the limits prescribed by its definitions, but these limits seemed to him too narrow. He thought that teaching was practically wider than the definition. It is true that the forming of all primary concepts requires the presence of the object whether the object be psychical or physical, subjective or objective. Hence it is impossible to teach concepts, whether individual or general, without presenting the objects to the mind. No concept, represented by a single word, can be taught through that word. All word-concepts must be taught objectively. He did not assert that every element in a concept is presentative. There are thought elements in many concepts, even of physical objects, but what is claimed is that the mind can not form a concept, represented by a word, without the presence of the appropriate object. A word can recall a known concept associated with it; it can not call a *new* concept into the mind. To this extent, all original knowledge must be taught objectively, and so far the positions of the paper are sound.

But may not the relations between objects be taught by language, provided the word employed represent *known concepts*? If each word in a sentence represents or recalls a known concept, the sentence may enable the mind to see a relation between the objects thus represented—that is, to grasp a new thought, to gain new knowledge. Much oral teaching consists in presenting new relations between known objects (objects represented by concepts), by means of oral language, not by presenting the actual object. It is true that the original idea of the relation, as expressed by a word, must be obtained objectively, but this relation thus known, may be applied to other objects by language. The art of reading consists in seeing relations between objects as expressed by written or printed words. A necessary condition of this thought reading is that the mind be in possession of the concepts or ideas represented by the words. Text-book-teaching consists in aiding the pupil to *read* the printed page—to grasp the thought expressed in written language. The objects of knowledge are presented to the mind by language, and the pupil is taught to see the expressed relations, to grasp the knowledge. If the concepts back of any of the words are not known, they must be taught objectively; but the paper seemed to him in error in requiring the presence of the objects in all acquisition of knowledge. How would it be possible to teach history, if this were necessary? Teaching must ultimately assist the pupil in gaining knowledge from the printed page. Books contain much of the knowledge of the race, and it is by reading that man comes into the possession of this inheritance of knowledge. An important function of the teacher is to teach the pupil the art of mastering books. The text-book has an important place in education.

MR. HARRIS suggested that the perception practised in the school is not original perception in the meaning of the report, but that the other intellectual activities are involved in it. It is a complex act, and not a simple one. It involves comparison, judgment, and the like. The child has passed through the stage of the exercise of simple original perceptions before he enters the school.

He has reached the language period, in which he deals with concepts, or with perceptions, different much from the atoms of first experience that are their beginnings of our knowledge.

MR. DICKINSON: In teaching history a careful distinction should be made between knowledge and information. The student of history should first acquire knowledge of the different kinds of historical objects or events. By objective study and teaching, then, a teacher or a book may inform him where and when these objects or events have existed. The knowledge and information will furnish the learner's mind with data from which a reasoning process may discover causes and infer results. A knowledge of the relation of things springs up in the mind, on an analysis of the things themselves.

III. REPORT OF COMMITTEE ON CITY SCHOOL SYSTEMS.

SUPERVISION.—MODES OF ELECTION OF SUPERINTENDENT, TENURE OF OFFICE,
DUTIES, ETC.

The office and duty of a superintendent of schools are defined in general terms by the rules usually prescribed for his direction.

1. He is the executive officer of the Board of Education in all particulars as required by rules of the board.

2. He is director in the department of instruction under the course of study prescribed.

3. It is generally required that he shall act as counsellor of the board in all matters submitted to him by the board or its committees.

All these duties centre in the solitary teacher of the independent district school, but as soon as two teachers are employed and the process of gradation begins, the office of the superintendent and that of the teacher begin to differentiate, one of the two becomes the principal the other an assistant. One must virtually direct the labor of both, for it is impossible that good results shall be produced either in architecture or education, if each workman on different parts of the same structure, has his own plan, follows his own specifications and uses the material with which custom has made him most familiar.

As the school grows in numbers the principal should be allowed more and more time for the supervision and direction of the labors of his assistants until there are ten or twelve in the *corps* and an average membership of from four to five hundred pupils. So soon as the school reaches this point he should be released from teaching according to program and be required to give class instruction only when it may be necessary to supplement the work of such assistants as may fall short of bringing their pupils to the required standard of the grade, either as to the quantity or quality of the work done. This change increases rather than diminishes his labor and responsibility. He ought to be familiar with and expert in the application of the best methods of teaching, and should be well informed as to the most appropriate subjects for the instruction of all grades—the true order of studies.

He now needs all his time to observe the wants of his school as a whole, to correlate and harmonize the instruction of the different grades in each and all the studies pursued, to ascertain the causes of weakness in the management and of defects in the instruction of inexperienced teachers, and for giving them such aid and counsel as the case may demand, to look after the interests of individual pupils who for any cause are either above or below their proper grade, to ascertain and suggest the best treatment of

abnormal cases, to look after the moral and physical habits and welfare of all. These things well performed, even with the co-operation of an able *corps* of teachers, are sufficient to occupy the time, thought, and energy of an able man or woman.

It is due to the committee to say that in recommending such allowance for the supervision of a single school they have in mind such an agency as shall bring a high order of intelligence and skill to bear on the education of each child from the time he enters till he leaves school, thus lifting the school above the capacity of a machine.

The point being passed at which the supervising principal is freed from the duties of a regular class teacher and the number of attendants having increased beyond the capacity of one large union school building, further growth can be provided for by "colonizing" the lower grades, their relation to the higher ones remaining the same as when they occupied a part of the same building and the jurisdiction of the principal being extended to each new colony as it is formed. This is the more economical plan and for many reasons the best. The organization is simple and the whole system may be efficiently managed by one man.

But when the highest class becomes unwieldy, or the district from which it draws attendance is so large that a territorial division becomes unavoidable and a new grammar school must be organized, the superintendency should be separated from the principalship. While a school is small, employing not more than ten or twelve teachers, the duties of a principal are not inconsistent with those of a superintendent, but when it has increased to twenty, even under favorable circumstances the distinctive duties of the superintendent as defined and implied in the rules and regulations of most city schools, departments begin to be lost sight of in the drudgery of the principalship.

With a supervising principal in each school of from five to eight hundred pupils, who is free at all times to give such attention as may be required to that discipline which is essential to the maintenance of good order in the hall-ways, the play-ground and vicinity of large school buildings, and who is always ready to extend such aid to the younger class of teachers as may be needed, for the time being, to carry them safely through their more serious difficulties, and who has time to care for individual pupils who need special management or instruction, the general superintendent will be able without an assistant to conduct the affairs of a system of schools employing as many as a hundred teachers. But as the number of class-rooms increases beyond that, assistants should be employed one at least for every two hundred teachers.

That local supervision which is exercised by the principal of a school, under a general superintendent, has for its purpose the protection and judicious promotion of local interests, the maintenance of pleasant rela-

tions between pupils and teachers, and between the school as a whole and the public. It should aim to excite a degree of local pride in and affection for the school of the district, for it is mainly through the attachment of the people to the school in their own neighborhood that they rise to a due appreciation of the value of the public school system to the State and nation. But unless this local supervision is subordinate to a central executive agency it is apt to promote local prejudices and foster animosities between one school and another, and unless closely watched it is quite sure to result in rivalries of display instead of generous competitions in the development of what is best in education. Hence local supervision cannot supersede the necessity for a general superintendent, whose office it is to harmonize and combine local influences for the good of the whole, to see that the regulations of the schools are properly interpreted and uniformly enforced, that the course of study is carried out, and yet a constant restraint maintained upon the universal tendency of schools to mechanism and routine, to see that personal considerations or local influences do not work the retention of poor teachers nor prevent the employment of the best, to investigate impartially the claims alike of old methods and "new departures," with a view to the retention or absorption of all that is good and true, and most useful in the education and training of the young.

Assistant Superintendents.

It is unfortunate that the term assistant superintendent is applied to officers having so many and various functions, that the name does not indicate the duties to which they are assigned in different places. A thorough classification of those duties, and some attempt toward a fitting title for each class, would not be without advantage to the boards having control of the school systems of the great and yet rapidly growing cities of the United States. Local peculiarities may go far to determine what is best for each place, but there are important conditions common to all which if properly considered would work great changes and result in some degree of uniformity.

The committee in this report can do but little more than give in a general way a classification of the duties to which assistant superintendents are assigned and to indicate one or two directions in which they may be employed to advantage, but which seem to have attracted little attention.

The committee find that assistant superintendents are variously employed:

1. As district or division superintendents. Each one having charge of all the schools in a prescribed district or division of a city in all mat-

ters pertaining to management and instruction, but subject to the direction of the general superintendent in the discharge of his duties. In cities having a population of three hundred thousand inhabitants or more there should be a sufficient *corps* consisting of two or more district superintendents whose office it should be to aid the general superintendent in unifying and harmonizing the system as a whole, and carrying out those plans and making those changes which have been approved for the good of all, and which demand thorough acquaintance with all local needs and agencies and at the same time require a thorough understanding of the spirit of the plan proposed, and a hearty disposition to carry it into effective operation. A division of general office duties may be made between the district superintendents and the chief, as in the examination of teachers, the preparation and distribution of blanks, in conducting teachers' meetings, etc., etc.

2. We find in most cities superintendents of departments, as for instance, of primary and grammar schools, and even of grades, as of the first, second, and third years, etc. This horizontal division of labor in the supervising *corps* is most frequently resorted to in the lower grades of the schools, where inexperienced teachers are most employed and where training teachers are indispensable, but when carried further than this the plan is of doubtful utility.

3. When practicable it is better that the division of labor in the matter of instruction should be vertical rather than horizontal, that is, between the subjects of study rather than between the grades of the schools. The principal obstacle to the adoption of this plan, hitherto, has been the difficulty of finding men and women equally competent in the science and art of primary and grammar school instruction, especially in the more important branches taught in both. Some of the advantages of the plan are undeniably very great: (1) It affords opportunity to each supervisor to become a specialist in the branch assigned to him. Thus he may become a master both of the subject matter taught and of the best methods of teaching it. (2) It would secure continuity and due succession of topics in each subject of study from step to step of the pupil's progress throughout his primary and grammar school course, and thus it would strengthen the weakest point in the graded school system. (3) Each teacher would come under review of the whole supervisory *corps*, the district superintendent, the general superintendent, and the special director of instruction in each branch taught, and the influence of the whole could not but prevail in the assignment of any teacher to his proper rank. (4) The efficiency of this plan is illustrated in the results obtained by special teachers with the assistance of class teachers who may in the beginning be entirely ignorant of, or certainly very little acquainted with, the subject taught, as for instance, in music, penmanship, drawing, etc.

Mode of Election.

Your committee is unanimously of the opinion that the superintendents of instruction should be appointed by boards of education, and that the office should not be subject to the chances of popular elections. When the duties of a public officer are almost as well known to every intelligent voter as to the man who may fill it for the time being; as is the case with a city auditor, a treasurer, an alderman, or mayor, it is well that they should annually or biennially be subject to election or re-election at the will of the people; but when the proper and efficient performance of the duties of an office demands special study, for instance in law, medicine, civil or mechanical engineering, or even a thorough knowledge of those branches which belong to any scheme of liberal education as Latin or mathematics, the situation should be put into the hands of men who are in some degree competent to judge such qualifications, or who at least have a disposition and the opportunity to consult competent advisers in regard to the candidates.

It is preposterous to suppose that the chances of an irresponsible caucus, with its degrading associations and low conflicting interests, can be depended on to put into nomination, men who are worthy of being placed in the leadership of a *corps* of accomplished teachers, or who are qualified to devise and carry out a broad and generous scheme for the education of a people.

Tenure of Office.

A superintendent being elected by a majority vote of all the members of a board, his term of office should be not less than that for which the members themselves are elected or appointed, though, in the opinion of the committee, the better policy is to appoint superintendents and teachers to serve so long as mutual confidence may be maintained between them and the board. If such a policy were adopted, it would soon come to be that professional etiquette, as well as personal honor, would require that a superintendent should tender his resignation if he could not conscientiously carry out the policy of the board, or, if by any persistent line of action it should virtually declare or indicate a want of confidence in his administration. If he should fail to comprehend the state of affairs an easy remedy would lie with the board at any time, with this advantage, that the action taken would provoke and give opportunity for a formal statement of the causes which made it necessary. Occasions might arise in which such a procedure would not be unwelcome to the superintendent himself.

Duties of Superintendent.

A particular specification of some of the important duties of the office of superintendent is presented in the following paper prepared and submitted by Mr. Gove as a part of the report of this committee. In this relation a very interesting and vital question arises, viz.: "How far may a board of education hold the superintendent responsible for the efficiency of a system of public schools?" It is proposed by the committee to discuss this question together with other sub-topics if such be the will of the Council.

Respectfully submitted.

A. J. RICKOFF, Yonkers, N. Y., *Chairman.*

AARON GOVE, Denver, Col.

JOHN B. PEASLEE, Cincinnati, Ohio.

A. P. MARBLE, Worcester, Mass

S. H. JONES, Erie, Penn.

DISCUSSION OF COMMITTEE'S REPORT.

[Reported by H. S. TARBELL.]

MR. A. J. RICKOFF: There can be but one opinion on this subject. The superintendent should be elected by a Board of Education. By no means should he be elected by the people or by a city council. This office should be removed as far as possible from the influence of politics.

MR. JOHN HANCOCK, of Ohio: I believe the time is not far distant when the position of superintendent will be a political office. The state superintendent now fills such an office. The expenditure of eight millions of dollars annually in Ohio for the support of schools, is a temptation to politicians to seek the control of this money. The effect of this upon our educational interests will be deplorable. Superintendents and teachers are more and more seeking positions by the aid of political influence.

MR. MOSS, of Indiana: Is it any more desirable that the superintendent of schools should hold his office free from the exercise of partisan influence than for any other public official to be thus free?

MR. LARKIN DUNTON, of Mass.: As the education of our children is more important than the spending of our money for other interests, so permanency and efficiency are more necessary in those in control of our schools than in other officers.

MR. J. W. ANDREWS, of Ohio: When our schools fall fully into the hands of party politicians, it will be time for their destruction. Thirty years ago an effort was made in Ohio to keep the office of school commissioner above the influence of politics, but it failed. We should not elect either our judges or our school commissioners. A board should appoint and when a good man is found he should be kept in office. Men capable of party management are now promoted over men capable in school affairs.

MR. PICKARD, of Iowa: Popular elections have an educational influence on the electors. Is it better to have the people elect a school superintendent or to elect office seekers with power to elect a superintendent? Better trust the people; make them

feel that our schools are too sacred to be controlled by partisan hands. In Wisconsin, there has been very little that can be called partisan action, though the office of state superintendent is a political one.

MR. J. H. HOOSE, of New York: I do not believe that the tendency to give place to political followers on school boards is a growing one. The political revolution two years ago has given strength to the idea of civil service reform. This has come suddenly and the liberty of the individual has antagonized the unit rule and the feeling of partisanship which has come down to us since '61. In New York both parties at their last state conventions nominated each a Democrat and a Republican for Judges, thus removing these officers from the sphere of politics.

Tenure of Office.

MR. RICKOFF, of New York: A superintendent of schools should be elected for a term at least as long as a member of the school board is elected; but better for an indefinite term, as long as both board and superintendent desire to continue the relation. If a man be elected for an indefinite term, he will be willing to retain his place no longer than he has the confidence of his board. An annual election suggests the opportunity of change and sometimes subjects the superintendent to a competition with others for his own place. Permanency in the office of superintendent is important for the interests of the schools, giving proper, continuous, homogeneous work.

W. E. SHELDON, of Mass.: How can the fact of confidence and co-operation be determined except by an annual election?

MR. RICKOFF: As soon as the power, the virtual control, seemed to be withdrawn from the superintendent, then lack of confidence may be presumed.

MR. ANDREWS, of Ohio: Superintendents and college professors are now on a different footing. Superintendents have much larger salaries but they would be willing to exchange places with college officers, on account of the greater security of position enjoyed by the latter. Changes are frequent in Ohio. When a man has reached forty years of age, he is very likely to go into something else and thus we lose experience and our best men.

PRESIDENT WHITE: Something should be done to check this tendency to change. Election by a board rather than by a popular vote reduces to a minimum the use of political influence. The making of the office dependent on a popular election would drive from the superintendency many of our best men. The schools should be under the supervision of experts in education, and such superintendents should be elected for an indefinite term—that is, during mutual confidence and the co-operation on the part of the Board of Education. He would rather accept a position as superintendent with the distinct understanding that he would resign it whenever he lost the confidence of a considerable minority of the board, than to accept such a position subject to an annual election. There should be greater security in the supervisory office.

MR. DUNTON, of Mass.: The tendency in Boston is to elect members of the school committee on a party basis. If any superintendent has trod upon the official toes of a member of the board, he is liable to feel the effect at the time of his annual election. If not defeated, his influence is thereby diminished. The uncertain tenure of office depreciates the quality of the men engaged in the business. Able men leave the field; able men are warned not to enter it.

MR. HOOSE: Under what circumstances shall the confidence between the superintendent and board be supposed to be broken? If two out of six of the board are disaffected, shall he leave? Has the superintendent any duties to the majority? The superintendent has duties to the four who believe in him and his work. Is a man in business going to leave town because some people do not like him? Teachers owe a duty to the profession to show that a few disaffected men shall not drive them out of their positions.

Assistant Superintendents.

MR. RICKOFF: A superintendent should not be clerk of the board. He has too many other important duties. When the work of supervision increases, so that one superintendent cannot have a sufficiently particular view of the work and of the merits of each teacher, shall assistance be provided by districts, each supervising principal having supervision of all the subjects of study, or each take a department, or each certain subjects of study?

The committee recommend the last plan because it provides for a more particular preparation by the assistant in the branches assigned him and each teacher comes under the eye of each of the superintendents, thus removing the danger of personal prejudice or antagonism.

MR. HANCOCK: If a city contains more than 40,000 inhabitants, an assistant superintendent is required. In many cities the superintendent is overloaded. That plan of supervision is bad which cuts the system into layers or assigns to assistants a special subject. Horizontal supervision narrows the views of the superintendent and makes the system of schools mechanical. The individuality of the teachers is impaired. A vertical supervision is better, giving each a certain portion of the city to bring up in all parts of the work. We ought to specially guard against mechanical work in the schools. The danger is that we shall educate to mediocrity.

A principal should teach a class a part of the time. He sympathizes better with teachers and advises better. He is kept fresh in the work.

GEO. P. BROWN, of Indiana: The statement that we have too much supervision is open to objection. It is a question of quality. We cannot have too much *good* supervision. As to vertical or horizontal supervision the speaker has had considerable experience and considers horizontal supervision a mistake. A lack of sympathy between the several grades results. He prefers a supervision by subjects, one taking grammar, another reading, etc.

C. O. THOMPSON, of Indiana: In case the supervision be sufficient, is there any necessity for so many examinations? School examinations are a crying evil.

MR. RICKOFF: A single superintendent should have a complete view of all the work, if the suitable man can be found. The work of each grade should be based upon that which precedes and be preparatory to that which is to follow. The man who looks to the work in one subject through all the grades, will know at all points the relation of the work of the several grades.

MR. HANCOCK: Supervision by subjects drives the pupils to death. Each supervisor believes that his own subject is the important one and demands results without knowing all the requirements made by others.

DUTIES OF CITY SUPERINTENDENTS.

The technical duties of a city superintendent are administrative. He is the executive officer of the constituted school authorities. The direction and control of schools, primarily in the people, by them is lawfully delegated to a number of persons variously termed Directors, Committee, Inspectors, or Boards of Education. Originally, these authorities, themselves, performed all the duties pertaining to their office, personally and directly managing and controlling the conduct of the schools.

In 1851 the School Committee of Boston determined that an executive officer of the committee, a man skilful in his profession and adapted by temperament and education to the duties, ought to be placed as an intermediate agent between the committee and the schools; one who should devote his entire time to executing the directions of the committee. Nathan Bishop was elected in the month of May of that year. The movement for the establishment of this office began several years earlier. Its scope and objects were ably set forth in the first printed report of the board, viz.: the famous one of 1845. Mr. Mann had suggested the need

of additional means of supervision in his first report of 1838, and in some paper not long afterward he had specially suggested the expediency of appointing a superintendent of the primary schools of Boston. As a matter of fact the first superintendent had supervision of the grammar and high schools not of the primary, which were managed by another school board. The office of superintendent was established in Providence about 1839 and Nathan Bishop held the office until elected in Boston. The office had a temporary existence in Springfield before it was established in Boston, but had been discontinued there. Professor Greene was superintendent at Springfield in 1842, and the office ended with his service. This seems to have been the initial movement which has resulted in a custom now quite generally adopted. It is not the purpose of this paper to discuss the propriety of the existence of such an office but rather to portray something of the duties which to day belong to it. But the inquiry is made, even at the present day, "Why the expense and machinery of a superintendent?" The answer frequently is such as would summarily abolish the office. I take it that no valid objection can be made to efficient supervision in any department of our social or political economy. Objections probably arise amongst those whose observations have been made in an unfortunate direction. What number of schools can economically employ the whole time of a supervising officer is a proper question. In industrial establishments, as well as in enterprises requiring unskilled manual labor, employers insist upon abundant supervision. A great railroad company places one man to boss three or four. Every factory, large or small, has its foreman and its bosses. Experience has taught that such an arrangement pays financially. The conclusions are quite as reasonable in the conduct of schools; where even a small aggregation of schools is, there an able superintendent can be profitably engaged.

The written laws prescribing the duties of a superintendent although variously framed, are nearly identical in substance. "He shall have an oversight of all public schools within the boundaries of the district and shall perform such duties as may be prescribed by the board of education."

This formula presents a trivial idea of the complexity and magnitude of the labors of the office, and yet it covers the whole matter.

Two distinct and separate classes of duties are demanded of the intelligent superintendent; one relating to the board, the other relating to the schools. Facing the one he is never to have his back to the other; he is to be director, petitioner, adviser, or servitor according to the case in hand. Although his formulated duties do not so prescribe, yet his chief duty towards the board is that of adviser. Unfortunately constituted is that board that does not seek his advice; more unfortunate is that superintendent who is unable to give healthful advice. To do so he must be familiar,

first, with the financial affairs of the district. He must know about the assessment roll and about the tax collector's returns; he must be acquainted with the sources of income, and with the ratio of school expenses to other municipal expenses. Money is the greatest power in upbuilding school interests. A community may be intelligent to a high degree, may be unanimous in a desire to establish and maintain an excellent public school system, but no good resolutions can take the place of an empty treasury. In States west of Ohio this knowledge is of great moment, because extraordinary provision must annually be made for great increase in school population. When many towns annually levy a school tax ten times greater than the rate of the entire State, county, and municipal tax of Connecticut, when nearly half of all the money paid to the tax collector for all purposes is expended towards maintaining schools and building school-houses, notwithstanding streets are to be graded, bridges constructed, public buildings erected, water and gas works provided, sewers built, fire and police departments and courts of justice maintained, with such great expenses for schools, it well behooves the adviser of the board to remember when he would ask for helpful but not necessary accessories for the conduct of the schools, to be able intelligently to count the cost ere he asks for the expenditure.

The school tax in a little town in Illinois is three per centum of the assessed valuation of the district. Kansas, Iowa, and Nebraska can furnish many instances of a rate of school tax that would cause a New England man to stand aghast with fear lest ruin compass the land. A part of one Western city the present year is paying a school tax of two per centum, while the entire tax for all other purposes is two per centum. The superintendent in connection with the board must assist in tempering the expenditures to the reasonable income, that the efficiency of the schools be not impaired. He must be able to suggest modes of retrenchment other than one reducing the pay of teachers. Care is requisite that the proper number of pupils be assigned to each school. If necessary, few calls can be made for improvements in buildings, for supplies, and for apparatus. He must be ready with make-shifts in all directions, except in that of instructors, in order that low salaries of teachers be not made still lower. Of all public institutions in the West, the schools are nearest to the people. The school-house and its inmates are within easy striking distance of every man and every woman in the district. When the effect of straightened finances reaches the tax-payers, the schools are usually the first target for the aims of retrenchment.

The superintendent, if he be well informed in public finance, can do much toward averting the calamity of employing poor teachers at low salaries by pointing out other methods of reduction. It should ever be remembered that the typical city of the Northern States is ready to pay

without murmur all necessary tax for the support of schools, but the city demands a dollar's worth of school for every dollar expended.

Second, the superintendent should be well informed in the arrangement and construction of school-houses. What enormous blots lie scattered all over our fair land in the shape of abortions, miscalled school-houses! Maine is full of them; California is not free from them; like carcasses on the plains they lie broadcast in the Mississippi valley. Magnificent cities and humble villages have alike been struck with the calamity of misshapen, ill-constructed, unhealthful, inconvenient, preposterous school-houses. To remember that the people furnish millions of dollars gladly for ignorant boards and superintendents to squander, is to feel that one has the right to question the propriety of the existence of the office of superintendent. It is futile to say that the superintendent has no authority in this direction; he has what often is better than authority, he has advisory power and his superior knowledge, if he have it, is certain to influence his associates. Of all professions that of the architect seems to contain the grandest, noblest, and most skilful elements. Every true man does admire and reverence the art of the true architect; but those who do plan and construct a school-house economically, that shall be comfortable, healthful, and convenient, are few in number. Why should an architect be informed as to the desirable interior arrangements of a school-house? Who but the practical and studious school-master can tell the necessities of the case? The latter is useless without the former. The architect should not be permitted to work alone. As is the custom, the appearance of the exterior of the building is often of the greatest moment, interior arrangement must be modified to suit the outside. The people assist the architect by insisting upon a towered ornament to the town, and so board and superintendent, often only superintendent, urge that the money be spent on the inside for health and work, and not on the outside for pomp and show. Year after year we are building on, duplicating mistakes, profiting not by the experience of all that have built before us. Probably as many school-house monstrosities are erecting this year as in any preceding year. One can find them in New England, New York, and Ohio, that part of the country to which we look for examples. The duties of superintendents require them to call a halt and to see that gross blunders be not repeated. This means that the superintendent shall have made a study of the subject and be intimate not necessarily with the details of construction but with all that pertains to convenience in work and to the promotion and preservation of health.

Third, the superintendent should be prompt to advise in the matter of expenditures. School boards are inclined to be extravagant. One will find that a board elected on an issue of retrenchment, will often contain elements that are prone to lavish expenditure. They are sure to see

opportunities of reducing the pay-roll but are unwittingly led in the other direction. A shrewd business agent for dealers in apparatus, books, maps, patent short cuts, or gimcracks of various sorts, is able to demonstrate to the board member all the virtues and merits of his wares and speedily makes a convert. The goods are often ordered soon to be laid aside in the cellar. Principals and teachers too often join in requesting such investments with no thought of the outlay. How many of us care to take a careful inventory of all such purchases by the authorities during the last ten years as may to-day be found in the cellars and garrets of our school-buildings? These leaks from the treasury amount to a large sum. It is usually in the power of the superintendent to stop them; he should be so intelligently conservative as to advise investment only when commensurate returns are certain. He should not allow the people's money to be spent in such experiments if he can help it. In recommending changes involving cost, he should watch the emptying purse, and avoid all possible outlay except the outlay for skill to fill the places of instructors.

Fourth, the superintendent should see that the board is informed as to the current conduct of the schools. This is necessary because the board is the official, therefore the most emphatic medium between the schools and the people. Pupils' and teachers' comments upon the management are quite secondary to the utterances of him whom the people have selected to represent them on the board of management. It is no easy task to see that the individual members are familiar with the issues that continually arise. Formal meetings are not sufficient to accomplish the purpose, personal interviews are necessary.

Fifth, the care of the school properly is directly in the line of the superintendent's duties; this places him in direct relation to the janitors or custodians of the buildings during other than school hours. Neat and well preserved school-houses, with fences, out-houses, furniture, and all that pertains to the premises are essential accompaniments to good schools. A broken pane, pencil or chalk marks or whittlings in out-houses or on fences not only indicate weakness in supervision but are also a positive barrier to making desirable character among the pupils. The superintendent is the only person who can and will make visits of inspection and spur janitors and principals to eternal vigilance. A coat of paint, a day's work on roof, resetting a fence post can prevent, sometimes, expensive repairs; the superintendent is most likely to discover these needs and by suggestions to the board extensive outlays may be avoided.

The adjustment of sub-district or ward boundaries cannot be made without his advice,—a delicate matter and one that cannot be elastic. Lines bounding territory that shall be set apart for a school-house must be rigid, unyielding, even though the convenience of a few families might be furthered by temporary modifications. This is presented with knowledge of the New York theory.

It is in the other direction, towards the other side of the field, to the schools and the people that from the superintendent's place the outlook is far reaching. Here it is that technical, professional skill is the effective element of action. The number of professional, studied superintendents in this country is alarmingly small. Not the pecuniary remuneration, the glory of ambition, philanthropic love, nor a desire to be and to do good has so far been sufficient to induce the necessary number of men to prepare for and engage in the work of school supervision. The position itself is not a widely acknowledged distinctive occupation. In time it will assume that dignity that is not now accorded to it. The position of teacher is now often considered as demanding principally text-book scholarship; the superintendent's office can never be exalted except as a sequel to the exaltation of the teacher, an intimate and practical knowledge of whose work is a necessity to the superintendent. He must be a fair general scholar; he must have passed through several years of technical training both as pupil and teacher; he is not to the best degree able to supervise primary, grammar, or high schools unless he has for a reasonable time served as a teacher in these respective schools. The conditions of public education force into the superintendent's harness persons whose preparation has been inadequate, whose work has not been such as has fitted them for the duties. Men of great capacity and of liberal education are frequently pressed into the service of school boards and then learn for the first time by practice what before they had known only in theory. A clear loss follows the early administration of such supervisors; the illustrations are at hand and are familiar to you. And so instead of having a large number of well-prepared superintendents, we are compelled continually to make over material prepared for quite another and different calling in life. With this thought in mind, it is not strange that the necessity of the office is sometimes questioned.

The relations of the superintendent to the teacher are exceedingly delicate and difficult of management. He finds himself associated with ladies and gentlemen any one of whom has, in certain directions, superior qualifications. They are quite his equals, socially and intellectually, frequently his superiors. He is so to adjust these forces as to accomplish the work of the whole field in the best way. His view is of the entire situation, and, often a course of conduct, right and necessary, is insisted upon quite against the judgment of his associates. Confidence in his management is essential to success.

The little frictions and misunderstandings such as ever arise in small and intimate communities are to be regulated; carelessness and shiftlessness are to be upbraided; errors are to be corrected and insubordination is promptly to be followed by dismissal. Such things and many more are to be accomplished when neither the power of the general of the army nor

of the overseer of the shop can reasonably or profitably be vested in the superintendent.

Again, he is to teach, and to my mind in no part of the work is more skill required than in properly and effectively teaching a teacher how to teach, especially one who is failing in the school, and yet who presents to the inspector many crude, unorganized yet strong elements of a true teacher. To tell a teacher that the work is unsatisfactory because the results are unsatisfactory is easy and cheap. The schools would be soon relieved of the great mass of excellent young persons by such a line of attack. The superintendent's duties require him to help the teacher to do satisfactory work by giving intelligent and dexterous assistance. To do this involves superior knowledge on his part. At the frequent assemblages of teachers the superintendent is so to preside as to enable each to appropriate from the other whatever can be obtained in the way of helpful suggestions for the conduct of the classes, never concealing the relative merits of his associates, even though his own pride do suffer. These meetings must be frequent and are always helpful when properly conducted. The harm arising from interference with methods of discipline and instruction is to be avoided by giving all possible personal latitude. Appropriated methods are too often soulless, heartless, mechanical operations. A teacher to be in the best way successful, must not be subjected to dictation in details.

It is to or for the pupils that the superintendent's greatest force, thought, and study must be directed. All effort has but one aim, all instruments and means one object. All interests centre at the children. The schools are for them. Every element of power is ultimately exerted here. The advancement of the pupils' interests is the desideratum of all school management.

Then, he must be able to classify so that reasonable allotments of pupils to teacher be made; to make provision for extraordinary pupils whether of mental or physical peculiarities; to avoid inflexible laws, to modify rules, to allay prejudice, to forgive offences, to advise whipping, to expel pupils, to cultivate morality, to form character, to retain boys in school when they would rather go to work, and to make the children happy. The superintendent of a system of schools should be the publicly acknowledged friend and often the confidant and private counsellor of the young people. He ought to be a welcome visitor at home and at school. He must be able to talk with pupils of every grade, placing himself on their plane of thought and impulse. He ought to be a father, thereby from an intimate knowledge of his own children's life, be the better able to approach and advise the children of other people.

Looking towards teacher and pupil, one sees beyond in the same direction the parents and people. Each individual in the community under-

stands that his is the right to inquire into the conduct and suggest as to the management of the school. Dictation, advice, complaint, and approbation are lavishly contributed. The superintendent is the appointed person to receive these tenders. He must listen courteously, appropriate the helpful suggestions, redress grievances, mollify complaints, and be comforted by approbation, but not disheartened by blame. He stands the representative of the board in the conduct of the schools before the people. In this line of his duties, requirements not heretofore mentioned are demanded. A knowledge of humanity, not acquired from books, but from men, a true notion of business and of family relations, an appreciation of home in its thousand forms and conditions, of paternal and maternal discipline in its various degrees, of the loves and hates of neighborhoods, of the breeding and antecedents of parents; in fact, a knowledge of all that goes to make up one peculiar American social economy, is needed by the superintendent, that he may properly and successfully administer and adjust such matters connected with school-life as are daily brought before him. It is important that he so adjudicate that appeals from his decision be seldom, that the board be not often annoyed by called meetings for the purpose of reopening cases of alleged grievances upon which judgment has already been pronounced. This latter class of duties demand strength of manhood as the busy world makes manhood, and calls for an activity of a sort that cannot be found in him whose life has been a purely literary one, spent among books alone in the library. A quarrel prevented by the tact or foresight of the superintendent may save the entire system from an overturning that long time only could right.

To keep abreast of the profession is manifestly a duty. Informed of the doings and requirements of other jurisdictions all over the land, he is able, if properly conservative, to avoid the many foolish episodes of his contemporaries. The literature of the profession is so poor, so thin and so generally unreliable, that one can learn what to read and commend with difficulty. Our periodicals are improving, but standard works are rare.

I have written of the typical district where the average superintendent is called to supervise the school. Old crystallized school systems, and the very large new ones being relatively few in number, could hardly be considered in a paper on the duties of city superintendents.

AARON GOVE.

DISCUSSION OF MR. GOVE'S PAPER.

[Reported by H. S. TARBELL.]

MR. HANCOCK: I would call attention to that part of the report which recommends that the superintendent be the architect, financial adviser, and general agent of the board. Is not this demanding too much of the superintendent, with his other important duties?

MR. GOVE: The recommendation applies to cities of 20,000 to 75,000 inhabitants, not to the largest cities, and not, perhaps, to cities with long established school systems. He defended the enumeration of duties of the superintendent, asserting that millions of dollars have been spent upon school-houses within two years that have been largely wasted.

MR. PICKARD: Even in the largest cities, the superintendent should know something of the principles of architecture, of the laws of ventilation, of the heating and lighting of buildings, of the arrangement of halls and stairways.

PRESIDENT WHITE called attention to the professional duties of the superintendent in the instruction, guidance, and inspiration of teachers. This is the vital thing. The leader and inspirer of a corps of teachers must himself be a successful teacher, practically familiar with the work which he supervises.

MR. DUNTON: I agree with Dr. White. The selection of a superintendent is a matter of grave difficulty. Many school boards seem to think that if a man is learned and virtuous, he is competent to be a superintendent. How shall school boards be brought to recognize supervision as a profession? What can a man do for a set of teachers who see his lack of practical acquaintance with the work? If a man can not only give a theory but a practical illustration of it, we have confidence in his leadership. A school superintendent should be a man of large professional ability and practical experience.

MR. HANCOCK: Young ladies who have gone out from normal schools full of enthusiasm, believing they are engaged in a noble work, have been assigned to principals who, having no appreciation of their high purposes or practical skill, dampen their ardor and finally drive them into the treadmill methods in which they themselves work. Young men, just from college, are set to the supervision of teachers of twenty years' experience who know vastly more than they, of the work of the school-room and of its philosophy. Boards of education rarely know the difference in applicants. They think some local candidate who has no real preparation equal to an educator of years of study and experience.

MR. THOMPSON, of Nebraska: If the gentlemen who compose boards were present, this discussion might be useful to them, but we are lamenting evils rather than suggesting remedies.

MR. PICKARD: An important duty of a superintendent is to lead teachers to regard the conditions in which they work, and to see that the especial fitness of each is regarded. Many fail in some situations who would be marked with success in others. A large part of the labor of a superintendent is in adapting teachers to their places, thus we save an immense amount of power that would otherwise be lost. A superintendent who can correct a fault of a teacher without calling the attention of the school to it, is doing well. The taking of a class from a teacher in such a manner as to give the school the impression that the teacher is criticised, often does great harm and a great wrong. The superintendent ought to engage a portion of his time in teaching so as to keep himself familiar with the work. He may do this in large systems by instructing teachers' classes during the week. He should not be like a guide-board, eternally pointing the way but never going. He is the engine out of sight, controlling, giving power, but not a figure head.

MR. DUNTON: One of the reasons why superintendents do so much prescribing and so little leading is because they know so little about the matter themselves. The vital point for the superintendent is to improve the intelligence of the individual teacher, encouraging and advising.

MR. THOMPSON, of Indiana: Speaking from the point of view of a member of a school board, he would say that while members of school boards deserve often much condemnation, they are not deserving all the blame that is often thrust upon them. They often desire to do better than they are able. A new member should be enlightened and be brought to realize the importance of his duties. The superintendent

would better buy a few good books and read them, than run about town to see after his prospects of election. School boards should devise a method of electing superintendents that will not subject them to annual elections.

MR. ANDREWS: What the superintendent shall do and how he shall be elected are vital questions in American education. I have been struck by the contrast between the schools and the industrial enterprises of the nation. How are the right men found to manage large industrial establishments? How shall school boards find the right men? The schools depend upon the superintendents. They should be men of business tact and professional ability. The number of such men is small. When a school board finds such a man it should prize him and keep him. Greater care in the election of school boards should be exercised by the people interested in the schools. To the superintendent should be left a large discretion.

MR. PEASLEE, of Ohio: The superintendent should not be a dictator. He should not simply sit in his office and send out orders for teachers to obey. He should make teachers feel that they are interested in his plans as of their own origination. He should be a stimulator of teachers.

PRESIDENT WHITE: Too discouraging a view of the action of school boards has been taken. School boards are participating in the increasing public appreciation of the value of trained teachers. As this public appreciation of teaching as an art is increasing, so school boards are recognizing more and more professional fitness in the superintendent. Great progress has been made in this direction in the last twenty-five years. We must work upon public sentiment. Superintendents can do much in this direction. Judges are largely nominated through the influence of the bar, and superintendents should be elected largely on the ground of their professional acquirements and standing. He is very hopeful of the future, notwithstanding some unfavorable exceptions to the general tendency. Not as much wisdom is shown in the selection of superintendents of schools as in the selection of superintendents of factories, because, in the latter those who select have a more direct money interest in the result, but school boards are improving.

MR. THOMPSON, of Nebraska: Why is less business tact shown by school boards than by railroad directors in selecting superintendents? Perhaps, because the results of the efforts of the latter are not so apparent.

MR. DUNTON: May this not also be due to the fact that school boards are not selected with the same care as are boards of railroad directors?

MR. GOVE closed the discussion. He believed the office of superintendent of schools one of the most important in the world. Sometimes superintendents do not do as well as they can, because they think some other line of work better than their own. We can perform the duties of our positions, because of our experience therein; because we have grown up to its duties. We must train young men to this work, not draw in men from other lines of duty. The prospects of our schools were never better; all parties proclaim their support of public schools. The tenure of office of superintendents is usually as good as in other lines of work.

In the brief paper, I have but hinted at some of the more obvious duties which demand our constant attention. It would be an endless task to detail all of them. An educated man, adapted to and understanding the responsibilities of an overseer of instruction, will not fail to discover the needs of the community in which he plays so prominent a part. There is no doubt but that such a superintendent will be competent to direct his line of action in a manner satisfactory alike to his constituents and to his own conscience.

IV. REPORT ON PREPARATION FOR COLLEGE.

EXPLANATORY NOTE.—The joint committee which presents the following report is constituted of the standing committees of the National Council on Higher Education and on Secondary Education, and the special committee on Preparatory Schools. The membership of these committees is as follows, viz.: of *Higher Education*, Israel W. Andrews, Lemuel Moss, D. C. Gilman, A. L. Chapin, and W. W. Folwell; of *Secondary Education*, W. A. Mowry, John Hancock, D. N. Camp, E. W. Coy, and John Swett; and of *Preparatory Schools*, Lemuel Moss, A. L. Chapin, Israel W. Andrews, Merrick Lyon, and W. A. Mowry. Of these gentlemen Messrs. Gilman, Camp, Swett, and Lyon are not present at this meeting of the Council. The other members of the joint committee have been present at the frequent deliberations of the committee, and all unite in signing this report except Mr. Folwell.

The joint committee on "Preparation for College, including requirements for admission to college, and the schools required to furnish preparatory instruction" respectfully present the following report:

I. As a matter of convenience, we speak first of the schools which give preparatory instruction. These may be divided into three classes:

1. *Preparatory Departments*, so called. These are now found in connection with many of our colleges. Whether regarded as permanently desirable, or temporarily necessary, they have done and are still doing an important work. They will continue to exist for many years to come.

2. *Academies and Classical Schools*. These are for the most part either corporate or private institutions. They are known by various names, but are alike in this, that they are organized for the purpose of giving secondary instruction. These schools often include a wide range of studies, fitting many of their pupils for business or for professional training, but also making the preparation for college a distinctive and prominent part of their work,—sometimes indeed exercising this as almost their exclusive function. The academy has had an honorable history in American education, and will doubtless long continue as an effective agent in our educational work.

3. *The Public High Schools*. These are a part of the public school system of the country, and are well adapted to meet the public demand for some instruction beyond that of the elementary school and the ordinary grammar school, in fitting the young people for business and for life. The high school is also often used as a school for giving direct and full preparation for college. Your committee see with satisfaction the increase in this function of the high school, and know of no reason why colleges of all kinds may not wisely employ it, where practicable. This use of the high school aids in bringing the college closer to the sympathies of the people and of the teachers in our elementary schools, and familiarizes larger numbers of our young people of all classes with the thought that collegiate education is not beyond them, and that it is quite as important for them as any education that precedes it, for the highest enjoyment and

the highest pursuits of life. Great care should be exercised in the appointment of superintendents and teachers of these high schools, that they may be persons in hearty sympathy with collegiate education, and alike well qualified and well disposed to prepare their pupils for it and to direct them towards it.

II. With reference to the requirements for admission to college, great difference of opinion prevails in the committee in matters of detail, and an equal if not a wider range of views will doubtless be manifest in the Council. However, these general points may be mentioned, as indicating the beliefs and convictions of your committee, and are commended to your consideration.

1. The American college is a somewhat definite and well-known type of institution, notwithstanding the wide varieties in individual examples. It is an institution for general discipline and liberal education, as complementary to the institutions for secondary education.

2. The degree of Bachelor of Arts has also a somewhat precise meaning, and implies that the person who takes it has acquired a good working knowledge of the Greek and Latin languages and literatures, with whatever else may be included in the course. This degree, with all its significance, we wish to see maintained; while other corresponding and equivalent baccalaureate degrees should be established, according to the opportunity and ability of the college. Each college must determine for itself its special standard of admission, as well as the extent and quality and variety of work it can accomplish in its baccalaureate courses during the four years which by almost universal custom are given to collegiate instruction. Still there are a few general guiding principles upon which we may agree, as highly desirable if not absolutely essential; as a goal to be kept constantly in view if not in all cases now to be attained. Some of these are enumerated in the following paragraphs:

3. The course of preparatory instruction, properly so called,—that given in the well organized high school or academy,—should cover four years. During all these years Latin should be continuously taught, and Greek for three-fourths of the time. The time not required for these languages should be mainly given to mathematics, the principles and practice of English composition, general history in outline, and the history of the United States. These therefore should constitute substantially the “requirements for admission to college,” for the degree of Bachelor of Arts.

4. For the preparatory courses for the other baccalaureate degrees Greek will not of necessity be required, though also not of necessity excluded. Where Greek is not studied in the preparatory course, we recommend that the time thus gained be mainly given to the other studies of the course,—especially to mathematics, English composition, and history.

Thorough elementary training in Latin is an admirable preparation for the study of the modern languages, if not indispensable to it, as also for the advanced study of the English language and literature; and linguistic training in general, supplemented by mathematics, is proven by experience to furnish the best preparation for the experimental methods of the natural sciences. We therefore emphasize these studies as most important in the preparation for all collegiate courses and degrees, and are willing that, for *intending college students*, the modern languages (other than English) and the natural sciences should wait until they can be taught by college instructors, according to college methods, and with college appliances and facilities; except in those cases where these superior instructors, methods, and facilities can be found in the preparatory schools.

All of which is respectfully submitted.

LEMUEL MOSS, *Chairman of Joint Com.*

ISRAEL W. ANDREWS.

JOHN HANCOCK.

WILLIAM A. MOWRY.

E. W. COY.

A. S. CHAPIN.

MADISON, Wis., July 14, 1884.

DISSENTING REPORT.

Mr. W. W. Folwell, of Minnesota, a member of the committee, dissented from the report on the following grounds:

1. The report by detailing the preparation for the classical course will be understood and construed as giving out that course to be the form from which the "other courses" are departures to the disparagement of those "other courses."

2. And principally, the report tacitly assumes the existing American College, with the classical course as its central and essential work, to be the permanent and normal agency of the superior education. It ignores the university that is to be and has begun to be in our country. It inexactly applies the term "the secondary education" to the preparatory course it recommends.

The university, the "genuine university," is to appear in America: and when it does appear, it will rest upon a body of "secondary schools" cor-

responding to those of other civilized countries in which the university has been developed. These proper secondary schools will embrace along with the preparatory work now recognized, about one-half of the work of the present college course. There will be then, and not sooner, a natural and permanent adjustment of the high schools to the university.

The present college organized to articulate with the academy, now fast disappearing in the old States and having no existence in the new States, must get out of the way of the high schools and give them room to cover the field of the "secondary education" in the true sense of the words.

The report fails to recognize the present organization of education in our country as a transient stage, "not discerning the signs of the times."

DISCUSSION OF COMMITTEE'S REPORT.

[Reported by CHARLES O. THOMPSON.]

I. PREPARATORY SCHOOLS.

MR. HARRIS: The college refuses to fit its course to the high school. Commissioners, possibly of the alumni, might be sent out from the college who should attempt to bring about an arrangement of this kind: A certain standard is agreed upon, say Vassar for girls and Oberlin for boys, which should become an object to be attained; whether the girl or boy actually went would be a small matter; the effect might be that more would go after making the necessary preparations. At any rate the chance to go is something to work for.

MR. HANCOCK: An incongruous fact is that the high school pushes some of its work as far as the junior year of the college.

MR. S. R. THOMPSON: Is not one reason why so few go from high schools to college found in the fact that so many principals fail to urge their pupils to higher courses and represent the high school as a sufficient end in itself?

MR. SOLDAN: The report should embody a statement that one function of the high school is to fit for college. This would emphasize Mr. Harris's position. The future of the high school will show a differentiation of the course into three: one for mechanical pursuits, one for business, one for college.

MR. HOOSE inquired for the Michigan plan.

MR. PAYNE: There are about twenty accredited high schools. These are visited regularly by committees of the university faculty. If reports are favorable, students from these high schools enter the university without conditions. Students from other high schools are examined. High school work is perceptibly raised by this organic connection with the university. Men and women share equally. There are no academies. All university students are from high schools. The high schools are largely manned by graduates of the university and they naturally urge their pupils to larger attainments. The accredited high schools prepare for the three courses in the university, viz.: Those leading respectively to the degrees of A. B., Ph. B., and B. L., or classical, scientific, and English. The B. L. students are often transferred at their own request upon examination in the additional branches to the other courses. B. L. involves no language but English. Ph. B., Latin but no Greek, and A. B., Latin and Greek. *In answer to inquiries* Mr. Payne stated that in general the intellectual advantages are in favor of the A. B. or the Ph. B. men. Prof. Olney's remark was cited as to the great advantage to a mathematician of linguistic training. He admitted that tradition favors the A. B. courses, and that the stronger men gravitated in that direction; but there is not a great difference in the amount of work done by A. B. and Ph. B. men.

MR. FOLWELL, being called up by a request of Mr. Coy for information about the university of Minnesota, explained the relation of the university to high schools and the functions of the board of high school commissioners. The high schools of the State belong to the municipalities. But the university fixes a standard of admission and lays down a course of preparatory training. The high school commissioners say to the high school, "If you will adopt this course we will give you \$400 a year from state appropriation." The schools that agree to the plan are called accepted schools; pupils are admitted free of tuition, upon examination; the examination is conducted by means of uniform questions sent to the masters to which sealed answers are returned. The objection to the Michigan plan is that it does not secure uniformity of training in high schools, because in one, the teacher may excel in one branch, in another, another, and so on.

MR. HANCOCK: Numerous courses of study in high schools may be good for cities but bad for towns and villages.

MR. STEVENSON: In Ohio in many towns of not more than 3000 inhabitants boys are fitted for college.

MR. MOWRY: In some cases a preparatory department is a necessity in a college, but it will be abolished as soon as work is well enough done elsewhere. The academy has had an important place and its work is not all done yet. When every State has adopted the Michigan system, there will be no place for them.

MR. MOSS: The Indiana system provides commissioned high schools which graduate pupils into the freshmen class of the State University.

MR. HARRIS: Do not the majority of high schools prepare for college? Answered by some in the affirmative; by others in the negative.

II. REQUIREMENTS FOR ADMISSION TO COLLEGE.

MR. TAPPAN: The settled convictions of the best teachers,—as witness the famous Berlin decision—is that the best preparation for scientific inquiry is laid in linguistic study. Deferring all linguistic study to the high school period is putting it off too late. Pupils should begin the study of language earlier, not necessarily to fit for college, but because it is best. The age of ten is not too early, especially for living languages. In cities a permissive arrangement might be made for those who will begin early. The three sorts of schools, Preparatory Departments, Academies, and High Schools, mentioned in the report, are not parallel and an entire revision of the system is necessary. More account should be taken of scientific studies in preparation for college.

MR. FOLWELL: I dissent from the conclusions of the report, because its drift is to make the college the unit of educational force. The university has begun to be and is going to be, and rests upon secondary schools. These schools are not fully differentiated; their courses reach well up into the college. Why, for example, should a boy read two books of Livy at school and the rest in college, or learn part of algebra in one place and part in another? The secondary school must do a work complete in itself, by finishing topics and thus prepare for the university. Colleges must get out of the way of the preparatory schools. This will come about by a natural process of development. The teacher is the school.

MR. ANDREWS: The colleges are not in the way of the preparatory schools.

MR. PICKARD, by request, gave an account of the history of the reorganization of the university of Iowa and the difficulties attending it. The first step was to abandon the preparatory department, the second to unify the work of the university and high schools; result, that the university work rose higher and higher, and the high schools kept pace. The greatest fault in the high school is that the mother-tongue is neglected. Answering Mr. Tappan's question as to comparative fluency of A. B.'s and Ph. B.'s. Mr. Pickard thought a fair comparison cannot be made because the former spend so much more time in language study. Mr. Andrews wishing to know in what this desirable knowledge of English consists and what the existing difficulties are. Mr. Pickard said that boys cannot express themselves easily enough, or understand what is said quickly enough, and their vocabulary is too scant. They need more composition writing, more reading of good English authors. Should drop Latin rather than English.

MR. ANDREWS: Take two boys, let one study English three years and the other Latin for the same time, would the latter be inferior to the former in the use of English?

MR. PICKARD: No; not in the same class.

MR. MOSS: The report emphasizes English. I would ask whether in the eight years preceding the high school, English is not constantly taught.

MR. PICKARD: There is too much teaching of information and too little attention to its vehicle.

MR. HANCOCK: Not all Latin and Greek scholars can write good English.

MR. CHARLES O. THOMPSON: During the past fifteen years more than ten million dollars have been given to found institutes of technology. This money has been given mainly by business men, and the action is at once an expression of their judgment and a guaranty for schools of technology in the future. Yet thus far in this discussion no allusion has been made to these schools. The polytechnic school is an institution of the higher education, though it is not technically either a college or a university. It seems to thrive best when disconnected from the college and university. It has come into American education and come to stay, and preparation for the institute of technology is an important part of the subject now under discussion. It seems to me that there is not so much need of information as of power among young men, and the chief business of preparatory schools is to generate power, no matter what they prepare for. Men are born as ignorant as they ever were and it takes about all the time of the first fifteen years of their lives to equip them decently to live the rest of it effectively. The steps from ignorance to that degree of knowledge that entitles a youth to enter upon any higher studies are pretty nearly uniform in number and extent. A good preparation for college is a good preparation for an institute of technology,—at least in every respect but Greek,—that being a separate question. Linguistic training must have a large place in this preparation. In a company of students, some trained in Latin and some not, the former move through the course like a gulf stream. In the matter of power in the mother-tongue referred to by Mr. Pickard, it is well to remember the great truth embodied in Goethe's apothegm that he who knows but one language, knows none. Double translation in the hands of a skilful teacher is one of the keys that unlock the doors of fluent speech. It is a trying anomaly that English is best learned by an old direction and nobody learns to use English till he has used it a good deal. A part of the ineffectiveness of modern preparation for college arises from the fact that so small a number of classical teachers are really expert in the use of Latin or of Greek. It is undoubtedly wrong to send a boy to college without French and German; the elements of these languages should be learned in early youth, and can be. I do not think that a majority of college students who study these languages in the college way are able at the close of the course to hear lectures in German or in French, or consult authorities in them without the aid of a dictionary; yet they ought to have this ability in order to keep pace with modern thought. Hence, I think Mr. Tappan's idea that the study of these languages should begin early is better than the doctrine of the report; and if every boy who studies Latin in preparation for the higher education could be guided, corrected, and inspired by a teacher as familiar with it as Dr. Arnold was, there would be plenty of time for all the other things. Those who have carefully studied the economy of force in education are generally agreed, that in the hands of an expert teacher the average boy can learn Latin, French, and German, through the elementary stages, in the time that is now frequently devoted to Latin alone. But it is amazing that this Council should discuss preparation for college more than two hours and scarcely make the slightest allusion to science as a mental gymnastic, and this, with Agassiz, and Darwin, and Faraday before us and around us. We find here also another solution of Dr. Pickard's problem of language teaching. If there is any better culture in the use of fluent, accurate, and effective speech than good teaching in the natural history sciences, I have not heard of it. Who ever used better English than Tyndall? In other fields it is equally effective. In every scheme of preparatory study the sciences must have a place. It is noteworthy as a practical canon, that boys enter the natural history sciences more readily by way of entomology and girls by way of botany; and both seem to begin the physical sciences easily by the study of the mechanical powers. With the aid of a trifling amount of apparatus the subject can be easily and effectively taught. We must still use the mathematics as a prime factor in "preparation," but time would fail me to express adequately what an experience of fifteen years as an examiner has impressed on my mind as to the value of much of the work done in algebra and geometry. There is no danger that drawing will be neglected. With these auxiliaries, graphics, linguistics, mathematics, and science, respectively emphasized according to circumstances, the teacher is to "prepare" boys to be men—for that I take to be the object of preparatory schools—so that when they appear in the higher institutions they may be able to enter upon their inheritance of truth from

the great thinkers of the race, and possibly be so happy as to enlarge it by some labor of their own. And nowhere must the fact be so emphasized as in preparatory schools that the teacher is everything. Garfield's saying that if you have a bench with a student at one end and Dr. Hopkins at the other you have a college, contains a truth. After all the analysis of the art of teaching and the careful study of the science of education there remains a subtle quality of personal power, an aroma of genius which eludes analysis as surely as the bouquet of wine. It is well described by a recent writer in *Scribner*:

"Ideal Christian teacher, master, man,
Severely sweet, a gracious Puritan!
Beyond my praise to-day, beyond their blame,
He spurs me yet with his remembered name."

MR. HANCOCK: The course at West Point shows that boys from classical colleges do not outdo those in the same classes without that training.

MR. THOMPSON: The best man in the class that I once had the pleasure of examining at West Point, Black, was a graduate of a Pennsylvania college, and Professor Church, Andrews, and others of the academic staff were emphatic in their opinion that a thorough Latin training is a good preparation for West Point.

MR. PEASLEE: High school pupils try subjects too hard for them. One recitation a day should be devoted to literature, beginning with American and leading back as far as possible. A high school graduate with a knowledge of good books is better than a college graduate without it.

MR. C. O. THOMPSON, answering Mr. Hewett's question, said that his judgment concerning the advantage of the Worcester students who had studied Latin did not omit a fair allowance for those students who had not spent as much time in school, and those who had spent the same amount of time in other studies.

MR. S. H. PEABODY, of Illinois, being called out by the president, endorsed a Latin course, which gives the pupil a knowledge of the language, and is a sure source of power in English. He finds great difficulty in fixing a standard by which to test a candidate's knowledge of English.

MR. CHAPIN agreed with the views presented by Mr. Thompson.

V. REPORT OF COMMITTEE ON PEDAGOGICS.

To the National Council of Education:

The undersigned, Committee on Pedagogics, have been called upon for a report at this meeting on the following questions:

1. Is there a science of Pedagogics?
2. If there is, of what does it consist?
3. How is this ascertained or determined?
4. What are the relations of the science of Pedagogics to the art of teaching and the methods it uses?

Your committee beg leave to offer as their report the following contributions to the discussion of these questions, written, severally, by members of this committee.

They have confined their attention chiefly to the definitions of the important terms named and implied in the above questions—such as *science*, *pedagogics*, *art*, *method*, and the like, and have avoided any attempt to answer said questions by offering a sketch, even in outline, of the science itself whose existence they affirm.

Respectfully submitted.

W. T. HARRIS.
F. LOUIS SOLDAN.
W. H. PAYNE.
G. S. HALL.
LARKIN DUNTON.

IS THERE A SCIENCE OF PEDAGOGICS?

Report to the Committee.—Summary.

This report is an attempt to answer various questions submitted to the committee by the chairman of the Council

The principal topic under consideration is the one implied in the question: *Is there a Science of Pedagogics?* The first step in this report is an attempt to understand the meaning of this question. It is not taken in the sense of implying any doubt in the existence of such a science, but as an invitation to set forth the reasons why the name science is claimed for pedagogy. The meaning of the term science is then defined. It is shown that some sciences possess non-essential characteristics; this step is important because it implies that if pedagogics lacks some of the characteristics of the latter class, the name science should not be withheld from it for that reason alone. The result arrived at is, that pedagogics, as falling within the scope of given definition and possessing the essential characteristics, must be conceded to be a science. It is then shown that the science of pedagogics consists of maxims, data, and their logical or causal connection. The origin of the maxims is traced back to ethics; of the data to physiology, psychology, and logic. Its relation to the art of teaching is then traced, and it is found that the science of pedagogics, through its ethical maxims, fixes the aim of teaching, while its data supply a knowledge of means. In regard to the last part of the question, it is attempted to show that a method of teaching presupposes an adaptation of a body of knowledge to the mental and physical constitution of the learner, and that the science of pedagogics supplies the information necessary to interpret this constitution.

The sense in which the question "Is there a Science of Pedagogics?" is understood.

The question might seem to imply a doubt as to the existence of such a science. It might be said that if the Council of Education deems it expedient to raise and discuss such a question, there is a negative answer implied already. For if a body of men who are looked upon as students of that science, and many of whom have been engaged in teaching it for

years, consider it questionable whether such a science has any real existence, such a fact would in itself tend to prove that there is no such science. If those who, according to the nature of their vocation, have devoted years to the study of the science, or the practice of the art of pedagogy, were to raise the doubting question whether their educational work had any scientific basis, the verdict of the public in general would necessarily be, that there can be no such science, because if there were, the educators would be most likely to know it and would raise no such question in their own midst.

The inquiry, as I take it, implies no doubt. The question is not asked by us, but of us. Many teachers have asked the question in good faith, and many have asserted that there is no such science. The explanation of this difference of opinion must perhaps be sought in the fact that the term "science" is not understood and used by everybody in the same sense. No matter which answer is given to the question it is meaningless unless the meaning attached to the term "science" is defined.

The question, it is assumed, is not asked in a spirit of doubt. If it were, it could be met in an indirect manner, without entering upon a discussion of the problem itself, by saying that men of great intelligence, at all times, have held that there is such a science; that Aristotle and Quintilian among the ancients, Kant, Herbart, Benecke, Rosenkranz, Waitz, Spencer, and Bain among the moderns, have attempted to formulate and systematize it; that there is an immense literature of books,—some of which are scholarly works,—purporting to be expositions of the science: that among all civilized nations governments have made provision for the teaching and dissemination of such science by establishing Normal Schools, and chairs of pedagogy in Universities; and, finally, that sensible and conscientious men have consented to accept and hold positions which made it obligatory upon them to teach such a science.

We cannot for a moment entertain the idea that the basis on which all these efforts proceeded—and in some countries they have extended through five generations—has no existence in fact, and that such an illusion could have lasted so long and spread so widely. It would be like hunting for the North Pole for one hundred and fifty years, and then asking the question, "Is there a North Pole?"

All these considerations warrant the assumption with which this paper was introduced; namely, that the question, "Is there a Science of Pedagogics?" is not asked in order to imply any uncertainty as to its existence but rather as an invitation to set forth the ultimate principles on which such science rests. It is an attempt to arrive at truth through doubt, in the sense in which Plato says that the beginning of all knowledge is wonder, the sister of doubt, or in the sense in which Herbart, the founder of that science of Pedagogy which is now most extensively taught in Ger-

man Universities and Normal Schools, holds that the first attitude of the mind in struggling for fixed knowledge is *skepsis*, or doubt. Thus also Cartesius in trying to arrive at truth, rejected all experience, even that of existence itself as uncertain, and through doubting everything, arrived at his fixed and certain principle, "I think, therefore I am."

An indirect proof of the existence of a science of Pedagogy has been given. A more direct answer to the question remains to be submitted. It is implied in the meaning which we attach to the word science. If we attempt a definition of the term, it should include the essential and exclude the non-essential characteristics. It might perhaps be worded as follows:

A science is a systematized aggregate of knowledge relating to some special important subject, or class of subjects.

There are various essential elements included in this definition. Science and knowledge are not synonymous; there may be knowledge where there is no science. I know that I am holding a paper in my hand, but there is no science involved; of the detached, accidental fact there may be knowledge, but there can be no science. An aggregate of knowledge is necessary in order to constitute a science.

Nor does an aggregate of knowledge in itself deserve the name of science. It may become a science when the orderless multitude of detached points of information is systematized, when connections are established between these facts, so that they become coherent and bound up in a unity of thought. Science implies system.

The connection established between the various data of knowledge forming a system, may be one of analogy, or of cause and effect, or of reason and inference. In every case there must be subsumption and classification. Data can be grouped together through the external principle of resemblance or difference; this would form the classificatory stage of a science. They may be subordinated and subsumed as resulting from some one chief fact or thought as effects or inferences flowing therefrom. A body of knowledge thus connected becomes permanently valid, for besides recording the transitory data, it establishes permanent principles; it fixes the place and dependence of any new fact, and suggests its causal connection.

It is further essential that such aggregate of knowledge should relate to a special class of subjects as its central point. From elements which have no point in common no science can be constructed.

Besides the characteristics which have been enumerated, there are others which may be called non-essential, since some sciences possess them while others do not.

According to the definition, it is not essential that a science should be derived from a single principle, or a few axioms. Some sciences, like

that of Mathematics, are so derived. Others, like Medicine, are constructed differently. By universal consent Medicine is admitted to rank as a science, and yet it is not evolved from a single principle or a few axioms. It has, however, one central point, one special subject to which all its data relate: The Health of Man.

It is not an essential characteristic of a science that its subject be confined to one distinct and homogeneous class of data. Some sciences, like Botany, Anatomy, etc., are so limited, but others, like Medicine, are composite and group data belonging to other distinct sciences round its own peculiar central point.

It is not essential that a system of knowledge be complete in all its parts in order to be called a science, for it is a self-evident fact that new scientific discoveries are constantly made in many acknowledged sciences: nor is the absolute certainty of *all* the data and logical connection an essential characteristic of a science; for it is well known that a constant process of revision and correction is going on in every science. Nor is it essential that each fact should be joined to all the rest by the logical ties of universality and necessity. In the inductive sciences the logical connection of the data does not possess these attributes. The logical connection of probability or contingency occupies a prominent place among the means used for reducing a body of knowledge to a scientific system. Hypothesis has found a manifold application in science; the Darwinian theory may be referred to as an illustration. Nor is it essential that the various literary expressions which a systematized body of knowledge has found, should agree among themselves in form. They may differ even in substantial details. No two works on any science ever agree in form and substance.

According to our definition and the preceding considerations, it seems as if the name science must necessarily be given to pedagogics. It embodies in the first place, an aggregate of knowledge gathered through thousands of years, and so well known in many of its features, that it has become the commonplace experience of the race. Child-nature has been the object of study of every mother and every teacher. The pedagogical knowledge derived from experience and thought has been systematized by many thinkers and teachers, especially by Herbart. There is also one central point to which all these systematized data relate, namely, the Child.

The second question submitted to the committee, "*If Pedagogics is a science, of what does it consist?*" is a subordinate one, and the answer to it is implied in what has been said. The science of Pedagogy consists of maxims or ethical axioms and of data arranged systematically and causally or logically connected.

The next question is, "How determined?" The maxims and axioms are partly of general character, embodying the evident and

acknowledged ethical principles of the race; partly of special character, embodying, for instance, the views of a special class of society. In as far as they are general they are derived from the science of Ethics.

The *data* of Pedagogics are directly derived from Physiology, Psychology, and Logic. Indirectly, self-observation, the observation of the ways and words of children, and the study of the physical processes, running parallel with the psychical states, furnish an inductive basis.

Ethics supplies the knowledge of the *aim* of Pedagogy; Physiology, Logic, and Psychology the knowledge of the means. In the preceding exposition, one department of the science of Pedagogics, namely, the history of education, has not been touched upon for the reason that its rank as a science cannot be questioned.

The last question referred to the committee is, "*What are the relations of the Science of Pedagogics to the Art of Teaching and to methods?*"

Pedagogics, as the name implies, is a science correlated to an art, a body of knowledge which is to form the basis for practice. It stands therefore to teaching in the relation of a controlling and guiding principle. It supplies a fixed aim and a knowledge of the available and proper means to the art of teaching.

By making an ethical aim the highest principle of teaching, the science of Pedagogics guards against the danger which instruction is likely to incur at all times, namely, of becoming the prey of the never resting claims of specialties which tend to remove the educational centre of gravity from the sphere of ethics to that of utility.

As regards methods of teaching, Pedagogics supplies one of their essential elements, namely, a knowledge of the laws of mind and body. Method is the adjustment of an object of instruction to the condition of the learner. Pedagogics supplies a knowledge of these conditions.

The maxims, too, of the science of Pedagogy have a direct influence on the practice of teaching. They prevent instruction from working exclusively for knowledge, and make it aim at training. They form the basis of all efforts at teaching by making it conform to the principle that the true test of good teaching is not what the child knows, but what he is.

All of which is respectfully submitted.

F. LOUIS SOLDAN.

DISCUSSION OF MR. SOLDAN'S PAPER.

MR. PAYNE, of Michigan, being called upon as a member of the committee by the President said, that he was not willing to admit that there is any doubt of the existence of a science of education. There are two orders of knowledge: 1. The knowledge of processes. 2. The knowledge of principles and laws. The first we call *art*; the second, *science*. Since there is art there must be science or principles and laws that determine the process or art. One may know the science without having a knowledge of the art, or he may be able to practise the art without any knowledge of the science. This he illustrated by the example of the chemist who may know the science while he is ignorant of the art of baking, while the baker may have skill in the process but know nothing of the science. The science of every art must exist in order that the art shall be.

MR. HALL, of Maryland, who is also a member of the committee said, that there are at present five professors of pedagogics in different universities, and no less than seven other educational institutions are looking for the fit men to fill such professorships. Some seem to mistake the process for the science, making the science to consist of a description of the methods of procedure. It is a prime postulate of the new education that there is nothing valuable that does not develop power. This calls for a knowledge on the part of every teacher of the educational value of the sciences he teaches. Is it not practicable to have in all our universities a curriculum of study, that shall have for its aim the discovery of a basis of knowledge for a profession of teaching? This curriculum would consist of: 1. A knowledge of mind and of the development of power in the young child, to be gained through a persistent study of children. By such study the lines of least resistance to the entrance of knowledge into the mind will be discovered, and the process by which power is generated. There are already a sufficient number of facts known to justify the foundation of chairs of pedagogy in our higher schools. 2. The course must also embrace a knowledge of the history of education, as it has been unfolded in the experience of the race. 3. It would contain also a history of the methods by which knowledge is diffused by means of the various learned academies and societies. The science of education is incomplete and the young must be taught that it is so, otherwise they will fall into the error of thinking that there is but one method of its application to its corresponding art.

MR. THOMPSON, of Indiana, asked for a statement of the difference between a science of Psychology and a science of Pedagogy.

MR. SOLDAN said, that Psychology sustains an important relation to Pedagogy. It supplies some of the data for the science, but is not that science. What is done with this data constitutes the science of Pedagogy.

MR. THOMPSON then asked if Pedagogy is applied Psychology.

MR. SOLDAN: It is not. Pedagogy furnishes aims in education. The datapoint out the road to the attainment of these aims. Psychology furnishes a part of this data.

MR. HOOSE, of New York: Does the science of Pedagogy proceed on the theory of attaining an ideal of personal manhood, or on the theory of an ideal civilization?

MR. HALL: The aim of education should be to teach subordination of self to the good of society.

MR. SOLDAN: The report does not formulate a science of Pedagogy, but gives reasons for the existence of such a science. The aim of education must be ethical. It is important to state this, that it may be distinguished from mere business preparation. The science of Pedagogy must consist of maxims, data, and their logical or causal connections.

MR. ROUNDS, of New Hampshire: Are these maxims and data to be determined by induction?

MR. SOLDAN: Maxims are deductive.

MR. HANCOCK, of Ohio: From what deduced?

MR. SOLDAN: The basis must be in the mind. I may arrive at inductions by observing the conduct of others; but my basis of judging of their rightfulness or wrongfulness must be in the mind itself.

MR. HOOSE: Why not include ethics?

MR. SOLDAN: Ethics gives maxims. It is therefore included; observation gives data.

MR. HOOSE: How does logic give data? How is logic a constituent of pedagogics?

MR. SOLDAN: By logic is here meant the observed logical process of the child.

MR. HEWETT: What are some of the maxims that are employed in Pedagogy?

MR. SOLDAN: It was not the purpose of the report to give a system of pedagogics.

But Herbart has said that the aim of education is *freedom*. This might serve as an example.

MR. C. O. THOMPSON: What is the distinction between pedagogy and education?

MR. HANCOCK: Why use the word *pedagogy* instead of *education*?

MR. SOLDAN: Education implies action; Pedagogy knowledge.

PRESIDENT WHITE: It is very desirable that the distinction between the terms used be made very clear.

MR. TAPPAN, of Ohio: A valuable distinction in the report is that between maxims and data. In the science of Pedagogy maxims fix the aim; data give the means.

PEDAGOGICS AS A SCIENCE.

REPORT TO THE COMMITTEE.

I.

On the Definition of Science.

1. Your committee understand by the term "science" a systematic classification of facts so connected by principles that each fact assists in explaining all the other facts within the subject-matter of the province of said science.

2. In this view of the meaning of the term, there is a science in existence whenever there are facts recognized as connected with a principle; and according to this it would not be necessary for the existence of a science that it should have a complete inventory of all the facts within the scope of the principle. It is requisite only that there be facts united by a principle. Every science, moreover, is divisible into subordinate sciences and so, too, every science is capable of being regarded as a department of a more comprehensive science, so long as said science does not itself include the universe within its subject-matter.

3. It is obvious, if one were to demand of any special science a rigid induction of all facts within its province, as a prerequisite to a legitimate use of the name "science," that there could never be any department of human knowledge properly entitled to be called science, for no complete inventory of facts can, in the nature of things, ever be made, even within the scope of the most insignificant principle, each principle having an indefinite number of applications. The realm of application to facts is indefinite because each fact is divisible into constituent facts and

because the facts are in a constant process of generation, new ones constantly beginning to be.

4. The term "fact" therefore does not signify an ultimate unit of experience any more than the term "thing" signifies an indivisible unit of being, or what is called an "atom." Things are divisible into constituent things, and facts are divisible into constituent facts. It follows that the entire scope of any science may be stated as one comprehensive fact with its one most general principle. The grasping together of a fact and a principle completes the conception of a process, and science must have for its object, therefore, a process.

5. A principle, in the scientific sense, as here understood, includes force or energy of some sort and its activity in the production of some process. It therefore includes a cause and the law that gives form to its (the cause's) activity.

6. We have therefore in science facts, or results of the activity of principles, and the comprehension of these facts or results through the idea of the activity of the force or energy of the principles. Science grows through the discovery of new principles within the old, or by uniting old principles in a higher principle.

7. Science, according to this, begins with the comprehension of facts by means of principles, and is essentially a growing or developing form of knowledge. Whatever grows or develops contains an absolute or complete element and a relative or transitory element. There is an unchangeable identity that appertains to the whole process, or else we could not grasp together the earlier and later stages of development as stages of the same process.

On the other hand there must be an evolution of new phases and an elimination of old ones or else we could not describe the whole as a process or development at all.

The science of Geology, for example, starts with the fact of the earth's crust as results of action of terrestrial forces in interaction with cosmic forces; and so much as is implied in these assumptions will abide through the entire history of that science. For were that basis removed the science in question would suffer dissolution. So Astronomy has from the beginning the stars and their movements as phenomena to be comprehended by means of some energy or star-moving force—the first form of astronomy has this content, its last form will have the same.

8. Pedagogics, therefore, if a science, must have in it the element of progress and decay—a transient phase, as well as a permanent element, the "form of eternity," an absolute and complete form which is incontestable from the beginning.

Education even in its first and crudest state has before it clearly the fact of the necessity of development on the part of the individual out of his

natural or merely animal condition into a type of artificial growth wherein he acts according to prescribed customs and usages, and observes and thinks according to rational forms already ascertained and prescribed.

New facts will continually arise in the history of man, new applications of old principles will be made, and even new principles themselves will be discovered. But the new that arises or is discovered will not render obsolete the old idea of education; it will fall under the old in so far as that is a general form of the fundamental fact and principle.

9 Science according to this view is a knowledge and is not to be confounded with the mere statement of that knowledge; science may and does exist even when its statement is unspoken or unwritten.

II.

The Scope and Limits of Pedagogics as a Science.

10. Pedagogics may be regarded as a term designating a department of the more general science of education. Education as a whole ought certainly to include much that the term pedagogics cannot designate without doing violence to its etymology and current usage. It would be entirely unsafe, however, to base any technical distinctions exclusively on etymological considerations, and it would be pedantry to insist on the general adoption of any special technical terms within the science we are now attempting to define. It is enough that each exposition of a science be held responsible for its own consistent use of terms.

11. Education in the largest sense of the term is here understood to include the process by which man as a natural being — a mere animal — becomes a spiritual being, developing himself physically according to an ideal standard, training his will into habits prescribed by civilization, and cultivating his sense-perception and his thinking activity so as to perceive and comprehend the world.

12. Two facts are presupposed — a natural state or condition of man, and an ideal type or goal to be attained. The process by which the transformation takes place is especially the object of the science of education. Education is a process of transformation rather than a state or condition, although the result of this transforming process by which the ideal is realized is spoken of as “an education.”

13. The distinction of the animal and spiritual man, — i. e., of his natural and ideal types, — and the possibility and duty of changing the former to the latter are presupposed by education. It is further presupposed that human nature as it is found in the individual is a fragmentary or incomplete revelation of the ideal, and that the race is the complete revelation. Each one contributes something to the self-knowledge of all.

Education presupposes two forms of human existence, an individual existence in particular men and a more substantial existence in social bodies. The realized institutions of man embody for the individual his ideal human nature in the shape of colossal facts—gigantic organisms in which the individual lives and moves and has his being, not only as a means or instrument but also as the purpose or end of the process.

14. The four cardinal institutions of human civilization by which man realizes his ideal and educates the individual into that ideal are the Family, Civil Society, the State, and the Church.

Each of these institutions has a special phase of education all its own, whose functions cannot be performed by another. Let one consider what the family does for the infant in the way of repressing his animal tendencies and in educating him into a conventional form of habits and usages in regard to the taking of food, use of clothing and shelter, sleep, recreation, labor, cleanliness of clothing and person, self-control in regard to all mere impulses, moral behavior, and the ability to understand language and use it for communication.

All other institutions presuppose in the individual this fundamental and essential education as already performed by the family before they can begin their phases of education. Civil society,—or social combination by means of division of labor for the purpose of making the supply of food, clothing, shelter, and intercommunication possible without intermission occasioned by vicissitude of season and accident of locality,—educates man to industry in a particular vocation. The State educates him into the sense of his existence in a higher and more powerful personality, the collective individuality of his State or Nation. The church educates him by furnishing him a view of the whole, the Supreme Being as Personal Creator and Director of all, and by this revelation it furnishes the ground of all human education and the final cause of nature.

15. Education in its most obvious signification as the transforming influence with the great social institutions—family, civil society, nation, and church—exert on the individual in order to convert him from a savage into a civilized being, reinforces its more general educational instrumentalities by the addition of a special institution, the School.

16. The school is established for the training of youth morally and intellectually in a direct manner by the influence of the teacher. The school forms a supplementary special institution whose place or order is found between the family and civil society. It comes partly after the first stage,—that of family nurture—and partly contemporary with it, and usually precedes the era of the education of civil society, namely, for an independent vocation, work, or business.

17. Pedagogics (if it be desirable to use this word in an English work on education) may be used as a term to include what falls under this

department. It is the education of youth in school and like other forms of education obviously includes two facts—a real fact and an ideal fact; for the real fact it includes the state or condition of the child as already educated by family nurture in the essential matters of conventional habits of behavior and in the conventional theoretical view of the world taken by the community so far as it finds expression in the vocabulary of words used by the child. For the other fact it includes the ideal of self-help on the part of the pupil, the putting him in possession of means and appliances and giving him the ability to use them for the mastery of all human experience.

18. Pedagogics is therefore very narrow and circumscribed in its province, although its function is of transcendent importance. It is to have for its chief object the transformation of the pupil from the condition of well-nigh helpless use and want, where family education leaves him, into a higher order of being—a being of reflection who knows of the existence of a vast storehouse of collected knowledge and wisdom,—the heritage of the race—and who possesses the keys to this storehouse, and some practice in using those keys.

19. To define pedagogics, and to avoid the use of tropes and metaphors, one would say that its object is to initiate the youth into the conventional forms and technicalities of intellectual communication and to train him to such habits as will enable him to use them effectively in mastering the wisdom of the race, especially as transmitted by the printed page. The conventional forms include the arts of reading and writing, arithmetic, geography, history, grammar, and the like studies in their special technical shapes, while the habits essential to the use of such forms are the school virtues of regularity, punctuality, silence, industry, and critical alertness, together with the other virtues of the ethical code.

20. Pedagogics, as a science, therefore treats especially of the process by which the youth is given this skill in the use of intellectual means and the groundwork of training in habits essential to personal character. It relates then chiefly to discipline (the training of the will) and to instruction (the training of the intellect).

21. The training of the body is not co-ordinate with intellectual and moral training as is sometimes supposed, but subsidiary to both, just as eating and drinking are not co-ordinate with living but subsidiary to it as means to an end. The cause of the introduction of physical education into the important place it holds in many theories is this: In Greece, physical education held a unique and supreme place in pedagogics because the religion of the Greeks defined the highest divine principle as beauty and hence set up for the ideal of education the production of the graceful and perfect physical form. The ascetic Hindoo on the other hand sought by frightful physical penances to produce distortion and paralysis in his body so as to

approach his divine ideal of a state of unconscious stupor or abstraction. Modern pedagogy avoids both of these extremes, holding them to be indifferent to its idea of the divine. Chiefly therefore physical education falls outside of the school and within the family on the one hand, or within the special training in skill required by the chosen trade or vocation in civil society, on the other hand; or is left to the function of the plays and games of youth—a matter of pure caprice and inclination with him.

22. Pedagogics as a science therefore deals directly and practically with the means of putting the youth in possession of the results of human experience as contained in the three phases:

(a) The collected observation of mankind; its inventory of the world as perceived by the sense; (b) the collected results of the reflection of mankind—the scientific or philosophical reflections, the moral or ethical conclusions reached, and likewise the æsthetical ideals embodied in works of art or literature. And it lays equal stress on the disciplinary forms in which this is done, as a will-training.

23. Although the training of the heart may be said to be co-ordinate with the training of the will and intellect or even to be of superior importance, yet it will be admitted that the nature of feeling is such that its culture arises indirectly through the presentation to it of intellectual views and the training of the will into habits.

Feeling is immediate, a consciousness of an immediate impulse of nature, a consciousness of what has already become a part of one's nature. Hence feelings are of two kinds: (a) primary in order of time—those that are inherited and appear in the child at first; (b) secondary in order of time—those that result from making over for himself a new nature through the formation of ethical habits and the attainment of intellectual views of the world. The latter, the secondary, or acquired feelings, are the ones that education aims to develop through its theoretical and practical training of intellect and will. Hence the result of school education as of all education should be heart-culture.

24. As school education deals primarily with the means and not directly with the end of education itself, it is from beginning to end essentially of a technical character—it looks to the method, the way, and manner in which the work is done rather than to the final possession that the pupil shall gain of the wisdom of the race.

25. Pedagogics as an art is the process of helping the pupil to attain the condition of self-help in the direction of availing himself of the results of human experience.

III.

The Relation of the Art of Teaching to the Science of Pedagogics.

26. From an exposition of the nature of Pedagogics, we gain the standpoint from whence we may criticise the methods and appliances of

the school: (a) in its course of study; (b) its methods of instruction; (c) its methods of discipline; (d) its organization and general management.

If the exposition of the nature of Pedagogics were to be different in essentials from the foregoing exposition, then a different basis of criticism would be furnished and a different method justified. Whatever in short may be the methods of actual teaching, they can be criticised or defended only by appeal to pedagogical science as the umpire.

27. From the views above presented, it would follow that the object of the school is more directly the mastery of the use of the printed page than the acquirement of mere knowledge. But it would not be sufficient that a command of mere technics were gained without regard to the content of the school studies. Such command would not be a practical one. A practical command comes not merely from the ability to read or write, but from the desire and ability to find and read useful books. The pupil must have been trained in mastering the elements of the great provinces of human learning,—the science of nature, organic and inorganic, together with those sciences, history, and literature, which present to him the world of man. To the ability to read must be added practice in the mastery of the provinces of human learning, but no farther than to give the pupil ability of efficient self-help in further growth.

The pupil should learn reading and writing and then the methods of expression in the various directions of exposition so that he shall be able to make the printed page a life-long means of increase of knowledge.

28. It would follow, too, that the formation of good habits is of prime importance—those habits that make combination with one's fellow-men possible—habits of regularity, punctuality, abstinence from meddlesomeness, earnest industry, critical alertness, friendly association.

IV.

In conclusion your committee would again call attention to the importance of distinguishing by technical terms in some way the wider province of education from the narrower one in the school and to the essential connection between all criticism, or practical direction of teaching, and the science of education in the school, here called Pedagogics.

Respectfully submitted.

WM. T. HARRIS.

DISCUSSION OF MR. HARRIS'S PAPER.

[Reported by GEORGE P. BROWN.]

MR. BROWN, of Indiana: The report employs the term principle in a unique and unfamiliar sense. Principle is usually thought of as a large and comprehensive idea, which is an abstract one. The meaning is synonymous with law. It has no real existence other than in the facts from which it is abstracted. The report speaks of principle as a force or energy producing facts.

MR. FOLWELL, of Minn.: The report departs from the common technic in calling a principle an energy. A principle is a mere abstraction, having the nature of knowledge rather than an energy or force producing results.

MR. HARRIS: Mere classification is not science. Science involves the idea of energy working under law. The two elements of a science are facts and principles. These facts being so related to principles that each fact helps to explain every other fact. A principle is a force or energy active in the production of some process.

MR. TAPPAN, of Ohio: Is not cause a better term than energy?

MR. HARRIS: The term *cause* includes the effect. Aristotle speaks of four causes which he names respectively, formal cause, efficient cause, material cause, and final cause. But he always distinguishes energy from cause. There is confusing ambiguity in using cause for energy. Science struggles toward not a cause but the totality of the energy which produces it.

MR. MOSS, of Indiana: Confusion arises from this use of the word principle in the report. I am aware that German philosophy uses principle to name activity or energy, but it seems to me to be a kind of knowledge.

MR. HARRIS: I would have the term principle include both energy and law.

MR. HANCOCK, of Ohio (speaking to the second part of the report): The author of the paper lays great stress upon the ability of the pupil to master the printed page. Are there not other purposes in school education of equal importance with this?

MR. HEWETT, of Illinois: I would question the position taken in the report that pedagogics, as defined by the author, is indifferent to physical education.

MR. HARRIS: As a matter of fact, pedagogy is indifferent to physical education. This is the office of the family, civil society, or the army. The school assumes a certain degree of bodily vigor. It is not its function to teach the art of health. The report does not decide that it could not be included, but it is not. The school being an institution which is an outgrowth from others, the purpose of which is preparation for the business world and citizenship, it is in the power of society to enlarge its function. But the *present* idea of the school does not include physical education.

MR. HALL, of Maryland: The report emphasizes intellectual education at the expense of the physical and emotional. Feelings are intimately connected with the senses of the body. Emotional development has to do with an all-sided intellectual development. Far down below all mental training should be a healthy physical and emotional nature.

MR. HARRIS: The importance of this is admitted, but the question is, Shall the school take special notice of it? The school is supplementary to the home. Physical and emotional education belong to the family. The child is assumed to enter school with this as a basis. If it shall be found that these belong to the school, they will be introduced. But they are not now included.

MR. SOLDAN, of Missouri: I cannot agree with all that is in the paper. The term pedagogics is used in too limited a sense. It is a term of broader significance than school education. The original meaning of the word would exclude it from being used in this limited sense. The pedagogue was he who had charge of the pupil out of school. The report places too strong an emphasis upon intelligence as the aim of education. I cannot look upon school training as exclusively or chiefly intellectual training. This idea is not in accord with the modern movement in education. The great purpose of the school is the cultivation of right feeling. Physical, intellectual, moral, and emotional culture is the proper aim of the school. It seems to me that the report also lays too much stress upon the mastery of the printed page. Not all the important sources of education are in the printed page; observation and experience are of much greater importance.

MR. HARRIS: Mr. Soldan does not rightly interpret the report. It holds that the result of all education should be the establishment of right feeling. But it holds that the school is not to do the work of all the other institutions or of education in general. It is a matter of history that physical education does not belong to the school.

MR. PARKER, of Illinois: Is it the intention of the report to state what pedagogy is, rather than what it should be?

MR. HARRIS: I wish to avoid the common practice of juggling with the word education. Education includes all of the influences that result in growth. It is the product of all the institutions of man. Some technical term should be used for education in the school. I may as well frankly state that I dislike the term pedagogy. The ancient pedagogue was an old decrepit slave, who knew just enough to lead the child from his home to the school. His influence upon the child was nothing. The school took its form from the church; so did the state. The ideal of education is the ideal of humanity, which is the true religious ideal. The family and church are nearest to the individual and most influential. Feeling is not an immediate but a mediate object of school education. The child comes into being with feeling. How is this to be cultivated? By giving the child an intellectual view of the world. Intellectual and will education cause that feeling which we desire to cultivate. The cultivation of the heart is the end of all education, not the special object of the school. It is the purpose of the school to show the way, to supply the conditions by educating the intelligence and the will.

MR. MOWRY, of Rhode Island: What is the relation of feeling to the other powers of intelligence and will in education?

MR. HARRIS: Feeling is not co-ordinate with intelligence and will. Intelligence and will are co-ordinate powers which condition feeling. Feeling must be cultivated through intellect and will. School has to do with separating these powers and subordinating them.

MR. THOMPSON, of Indiana: Two conclusions may be stated as the result of the discussion:

1. It is only a small part of education that teachers can control.
2. The greatest achievements in modern research have not been made and will not be made by Bacon's method, however much we may eulogize the Baconian philosophy.

NATIONAL COUNCIL OF EDUCATION.

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MEMBERS.

N. B.—The letter "A," following a name, denotes that the member was elected by the Association; the letter "C," by the Council; "S," by the Superintendents' Department; "N," by the Normal Department; "E," by the Elementary Department; "I," by the Industrial Department; "H," by the Department of Higher Education.

	Term expires
William T. Harris, Concord, Mass. A	1885
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J. L. Pickard, Iowa City, Iowa C	1885
John D. Philbrick, Boston, Mass. C	1885
Henry Barnard, Hartford, Conn. C	1885
Merrick Lyon, Providence, R. I. C	1885
John Hancock, Dayton, O. A	1886
S. R. Thompson, Lincoln, Neb. A	1886
Lemuel Moss, Bloomington, Ind. C	1886
J. B. Peaslee, Cincinnati, O. C	1886
W. H. Payne, Ann Harbor, Mich. C	1886
Thomas J. Morgan, Providence, R. I. C	1886
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E. A. Singer, Philadelphia, Pa. S	1886
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	Terms expires	
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S. H. Peabody, Champaign, Ill.	C	1887
E. J. James, Philadelphia, Pa.	C	1887
V. C. Dibble, Charleston, S. C.	C	1887
C. C. Rounds, Plymouth, N. H.	A	1888
Gustavus J. Orr, Atlanta, Ga.	A	1888
Aaron Gové, Denver, Col.	C	1888
F. A. March, Easton, Pa.	C	1888
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T. B. Stockwell, Providence, R. I.	E	1888
C. O. Thompson, Terre Haute, Ind.	I	1888
Miss N. S. Cooper, Oswego, N. Y.	N	1888
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R. W. Stevenson, Columbus, O.	A	1889
John Eaton, Washington, D. C.	A	1889
George P. Brown, Terre Haute, Ind.	C	1889
G. Stanley Hall, Baltimore, Md.	C	1889
Miss Julia S. Tutweiler, Livingston, Ala.	C	1889
F. W. Parker, Normalville, Ill.	C	1889
D. N. Camp, New Britain, Conn.	A	1890
E. C. Hewett, Normal, Ill.	A	1890
D. B. Hagar, Salem, Mass.	C	1890
H. S. Tarbell, Indianapolis, Ind.	C	1890
J. C. Greenough, Amherst, Mass.	C	1890
E. W. Coy, Cincinnati, Ohio	C	1890
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I. W. Andrews, Marietta, Ohio	H	1890
W. W. Folwell, Minneapolis, Minn.	I	1890
A. G. Boyden, Bridgewater, Mass.	N	1890
Larkin Dunton, Boston, Mass.	E	1890

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 Birdsey G. Northrop, Clinton, Conn.
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*See Constitution, Article I., Section 5.

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STANDING COMMITTEES.

I. — ON STATE SCHOOL SYSTEMS.

Sub-topics: (1) Organization (report made in 1883); (2) Supervision; (3) Examining and Licensing Teachers; (4) State School Statistics; (5) School Revenues.

James H. Smart, Lafayette, Ind., *Chairman.*
 Thomas W. Bicknell, Boston, Mass.
 John Eaton, Washington, D. C.
 Gustavus J. Orr, Atlanta, Ga.
 Henry Barnard, Hartford, Conn.

II.—ON CITY SCHOOL SYSTEMS.

Sub-topics: (1) Organization,—Officers, etc.; (2) Supervision (1884); (3) Responsibility of Superintendents for Efficiency of Schools; (4) Teachers,—Qualification, Appointment, Tenure, etc.; (5) Pupils,—Classification, Examination, and Promotion.

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III.—ON HIGHER EDUCATION.

Sub-topics: (1) Higher Institutions Required; (2) The Harmonizing of Elementary, Secondary, and Higher Education (1882); (3) Requirements of Admission to College (1884)*; (4) The Elective System; (5) College Government.

I. W. Andrews, Marietta, O., *Chairman*.

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IV.—ON SECONDARY EDUCATION.

Sub-topics: (1) High Schools,—Necessary Part of Public Education (1882), Relation to Lower Schools. (1882), Relation to Business Life (1882), Relation to Schools of Technology (1882), and Relation to Colleges; (2) Academies,—Place and Function; (3) Preparatory Schools (1884)*; (4) Business Schools; (5) Manual Training Schools.

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V.—ON ELEMENTARY EDUCATION.

Sub-topic: (1) Courses of Study in Elementary Schools (1882); (2) Oral Teaching (1884); (3) Text-books in Elementary Schools; (4) Manual Training in Elementary Schools; (5) Kindergartens.

J. W. Dickinson, Boston, Mass. *Chairman*.

N. A. Calkins, New York.

F. W. Parker, Normalville, Ill.

R. W. Stevenson, Columbus, O.

Albert G. Boyden, Bridgewater, Mass.

*At the meeting of the Council in 1884, a report on "Preparation for College" was submitted by a joint committee consisting of the members of the special committee on Preparatory Schools (Lemuel Moss, Chairman), and the standing committee on Higher Education and Secondary Education.

VI.—ON NORMAL EDUCATION.

Sub-topics: (1) Classes of Normal Schools Required; (2) Academic and Professional Training in Normal Schools (1883); (3) Practice Departments in Normal Schools; (4) City Normal Schools; (5) Teachers' Institutes.

D. B. Hagar, Salem, Mass., *Chairman*.

C. C. Rounds, Plymouth, N. H.

E. C. Hewett, Normal, Ill.

Geo. P. Brown, Terre Haute, Ind.

Thomas J. Morgan, Providence, R. I.

VII.—ON TECHNOLOGICAL EDUCATION.

Sub-topics: (1) Technical Training in Public Schools (1881, printed in 1882); (2) Preparation for Institutes of Technology; (3) Pedagogical Value of the School Workshop; (4) To what Extent should the Polytechnic School confine itself to strictly Professional Training? (5) The Function of Agricultural Schools.

C. O. Thompson, Terre Haute, Ind., *Chairman*.

E. E. White, Cincinnati, O.

J. C. Greenough, Amherst, Mass.

S. R. Thompson, Lincoln, Neb.

S. H. Peabody, Champaign, Ill.

VIII.—ON PEDAGOGICS.

Sub-topics: (1) Chairs of Pedagogics in Colleges and Universities (1882); (2) Pedagogics as a Science (1884); (3) Pedagogical Inquiry; (4) The Function of the Public School; (5) Moral Education.

W. T. Harris, Concord, Mass., *Chairman*.

W. H. Payne, Ann Arbor, Mich.

G. Stanley Hall, Baltimore, Md.

F. Louis Soldan, St. Louis, Mo.

Larkin Dunton, Boston, Mass.

IX.—ON THE EDUCATION OF GIRLS.

Sub-topics: (1) Co-education,— General Principles (1883); (2) Co-education in Elementary and Secondary Schools; (3) Co-education in Colleges and Universities; (4) Higher Education of Women; (5) Technical Training for Girls.

H. S. Tarbell, Providence, R. I., *Chairman*.

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Miss M. S. Cooper, Oswego, N. Y.

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X.—ON HYGIENE IN EDUCATION.

Sub-topics: (1) Sanitary Exercises and Appliances in Public Schools (1883); (2) Out-door Recesses (1884); (3) In-door Physical Exercises; (4) The Heating and Ventilation of School-houses; (5) The Lighting of School-rooms.

J. L. Pickard, Iowa City, Ia., *Chairman.*

J. H. Hoose, Cortland, N. Y.

E. A. Singer, Philadelphia, Pa.

XI.—ON EDUCATIONAL LITERATURE.

Sub-topics: (1) School Reports; (2) Books on Education; (3) Educational Periodicals.

John D. Philbrick, Boston, Mass., *Chairman.*

W. E. Sheldon, Boston, Mass.

T. B. Stockwell, Providence, R. I.

XII.—ON EDUCATIONAL STATISTICS.

Thomas W. Bicknell, Boston, Mass., *Chairman.*

John Eaton, Washington, D. C.

Henry Barnard, Hartford, Conn.

CONSTITUTION

OF THE

NATIONAL COUNCIL OF EDUCATION.

PREAMBLE.

The National Council of Education shall have for its object the consideration and discussion of educational questions of general interest and public importance, and the presentation, through printed reports, of the substance of the discussions and the conclusions formulated. It shall be its object to reach and disseminate correct thinking on educational questions; and, for this purpose, it shall be the aim of the Council, in conducting its discussions, to define and state with accuracy the different views and theories on the subject under consideration; and, secondly, to discover and represent fairly the grounds and reasons for each theory or view, so as to show as completely as possible the genesis of opinion on the subject. It shall be the duty of the Council, in pursuance of this object, to encourage from all its members the most careful statement of differences in opinion, together with the completest statement of grounds for the same. It shall further require from the chairmen of its committees the careful preservation and presentation of the individual differences of opinion whenever grounds have been furnished for the same by members of their committees. It shall invite the freest discussion of the reports of its committees, and whenever said reports are not so amended as to embody the new suggestions developed by such discussion, any member making such suggestion or objection may put in writing his view and the grounds therefor, and furnish the same to the secretary for the records of the Council. It shall prepare, through its president, with the aid of the chairmen of the several committees, an annual report to the National Association, setting forth the questions considered by the Council during the past year, and placing before the Association in succinct form the work accomplished. It shall embody in this report a survey of those educational topics which seem to call for any action on the part of the Association. The Council shall appoint out of its own number committees representing the several departments of education, and thereby facilitate the exchange of opinion among its members on such special topics as demand the attention of the profession or of the public.

ARTICLE I.—MEMBERSHIP.

1. The National Council of Education shall consist of fifty-one members selected out of the membership of the National Educational Association. Any

member of the Association, identified with educational work, is eligible to membership in the Council, and, after the first election, such membership shall continue for six years, except as hereinafter provided.

2. Each of the five Departments shall elect biennially one member to the Council. The Board of Directors shall elect annually two members, and the Council shall elect annually four members; each member, with the exception hereinafter provided for, shall hold office for six years, or until his successor is appointed.

3. The annual election of members of the Council shall be held in connection with the annual meetings of the Association. If any Department of the Association or the Board of Directors shall fail for any reason to fill its quota of members annually, the vacancy or vacancies shall be filled by the Council.

4. The term of service of the several members of the Council chosen at the first election shall be arranged by the Executive Committee of the Council.

5. The absence of a member from two consecutive annual meetings of the Council shall be considered equivalent to resignation of membership, and the Council shall fill vacancies caused by absence from the Council as herein defined, as well as vacancies caused by death or resignation, for the unexpired term. All persons who have belonged to the Council shall, on the expiration of their membership, become honorary members, with the privilege of attending its regular sessions, and participating in its discussions. No State shall be represented by more than eight members in the Council.

ARTICLE II. — FEES.

There shall be no fee for membership in the Council of Education, but each member of it shall secure a membership in the National Educational Association by becoming a life member of the same, or by paying to the treasurer of the Association the annual membership fee of two dollars.

ARTICLE III. — MEETINGS.

There shall be a regular annual meeting of the Council held at the same place as the meeting of the National Association, and at least two days previous to this meeting. There may be special meetings of the Council, subject to the call of the Executive Committee, but the attendance at these meetings shall be entirely voluntary. The regular meeting of the Committees shall take place on the days provided for the annual meeting of the council. Meetings of Committees may be called at any time by the chairman of the respective Committees, but attendance at such special meetings shall be entirely voluntary. A majority of the Council shall constitute a quorum for the transaction of business at any meeting, whether regular or called; but any less number, exceeding eight members, may constitute a quorum for the transaction of business at the regular annual meeting, as defined in this Article.

ARTICLE IV. — COMMITTEES.

The general management of the affairs of the Council shall be vested in an Executive Committee, composed of the President, Vice-President, and Secretary of the Council, and four other members, all of whom are to be elected by the Council at its annual meeting. There shall be twelve standing committees. The first nine Committees (named below in this Article) shall each have five members and the last three Committees shall each have three members. They shall be appointed by the Executive Committee, and be named as follows:

- Committee on State School Systems.
- Committee on City School Systems.
- Committee on Higher Education.
- Committee on Secondary Education.
- Committee on Elementary Education.
- Committee on Normal Education.
- Committee on Technological Education.
- Committee on Pedagogics.
- Committee on Education of Girls.
- Committee on Hygiene in Education.
- Committee on Educational Literature.
- Committee on Educational Statistics.

ARTICLE V. — DUTIES OF COMMITTEES.

The Committees of the Council shall consider the topics assigned to them, and report on the same; they may select for their deliberations such other questions belonging to their departments as they deem proper to discuss.

Whenever called upon, the Committees shall continue the deliberative work of the Association on topics assigned to them, or prepare questions to be submitted to that body.

ARTICLE VI. — DUTIES OF MEMBERS OF THE COMMITTEES.

The members of the Council shall render active service and assistance in the work of the Committee to which they have been assigned, and further the general work of the Council as much as is in their power. They shall give their attention to the questions submitted to them, and communicate their conclusions in writing to the chairman of their Committee.

ARTICLE VII. — DUTIES OF THE CHAIRMEN OF COMMITTEES.

The Chairman of each Committee shall communicate the questions which are to be discussed to each of the members of his Committee, and send them such other communications as may assist them in their work. He shall arrange a suitable plan for an exchange of opinion, and embody the conclusions arrived at in a brief report. He shall from time to time inform the Secretary of the Council of the progress made by his Committee. He shall, with the consent of the other members of his Committee, arrange special meetings at a convenient time and place.

He shall see that the communications, sent in turn to each member of his Committee, are promptly forwarded. He shall state distinctly (in the form of questions, when feasible) the topics on which he desires to have a brief expression of opinion from the members of his Committee, and embody the substance of their answers in his report.

ARTICLE VIII. — THE WORK OF THE COMMITTEES.

The work of the Committees of the Council shall be carried on in the regular meetings provided for above, and in such special meetings as can be arranged from time to time, according to the pleasure of the Committee, and, principally, in writing, by an exchange of briefly expressed opinions. It shall be the duty of each Chairman to devise a plan for the latter. Each member may be required to report on a part of the subject; or the whole topic may be submitted to each member, together with the opinion of the other members that have considered the topic before.

ARTICLE IX. — DUTIES OF THE COUNCIL.

It shall be the duty of the Council to further the objects of the National Association, and to use its best efforts to promote the cause of education in general. The Council shall assign work to each Committee, and receive a report on the same; it shall cause to be published such reports of committees, or parts of the same, as in its judgment should be brought to general notice; it shall present, through the President of the Council, an annual report of its work to the National Educational Association.

ARTICLE X. — AMENDMENTS.

This Constitution may be altered or amended, at a regular meeting of the Council, by a two-thirds vote of the members present, and any provision may be waived, at any regular meeting, by unanimous consent.

By-Laws not in violation of this Constitution may be adopted by a two-thirds vote of the Council.

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